

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 9, 1879.

The Week.

THE enormous speculative transactions at the Stock Exchange have at length begun to attract general attention. The business in shares alone has averaged over 400,000 shares each day, and on one day the aggregate was 489,000 shares. All stocks are dealt in on a par of \$100, and brokers' commissions are one-eighth of one per cent. on this par. A remarkable feature of this business, which averages over \$40,000,000 per day (par value), is that less than one-fourth of it is in stocks which pay any dividends. The fluctuations in prices, too, are as remarkable as the great number of shares which change hands. Although speculation is wild, and such reasons as there are for a recovery from the depression of the last five years are greatly exaggerated, yet the speculation is not unaccountable. The resumption of specie payments enlarged the currency, inspired confidence, and put the money market on the same basis as foreign money markets. Then the refunding of the public debt turned out of (5 and 6 per cent.) U. S. bonds a great many millions of dollars, part of which returned to 4 per cent. bonds, and a part went into other securities paying higher interest. During the transfer there was a strong inducement for all who had speculative ventures to float to bring them out in the most attractive way. Refunding of the debt induced the Treasury to use its influence to keep money very easy, which helped outside speculations as well as the Government bond market. Following this refunding, with its direct and indirect influences, came the good harvests in this country and the short crops throughout Europe, and as the logical result of this came the importation of gold. Since August 1 nearly \$39,000,000 of foreign specie, almost all gold, has arrived, and about \$15,000,000 more is afloat bound for New York. Except for these specie imports the speculation which had been built on the favorable events of the early part of the year must have broken down for want of money facilities; but the gold imported has been sufficient to move the crops, to carry the new securities which have come into being by the million, to sustain the advance in the price of old securities, and to furnish bank facilities for the enlarged volume of mercantile business. It has, however, been barely sufficient; there has been nothing to spare. These are the main reasons why Wall Street and other departments of speculation are wild.

The notable events of the week were: the gold imports above alluded to; the final settlement of the 4 per cent. bond account, which was completed without the loss of a dollar to the Government; the speculation in Erie, which, with the aid of reports that Vanderbilt is seeking a controlling interest, carried the price of the common stock up to 42 from 32 $\frac{1}{2}$, and the other share and bond issues in proportion; the rise of 3 to 8 per cent. in the coal stocks, on the hopeful attempt to form a new combination; and the rise in United States bonds on the final closing up of the Syndicate accounts and the discovery that there are yet outstanding somewhat over \$25,000,000 of called bonds, a good part of which must eventually be replaced with 4 per cents.

The *Times* has at last produced its authority for the assertion that "the South had presented in Congress the doctrine on which the theory of secession rested, and declared its purpose once more to attempt the application of this to the administration of the Government." This doctrine was, as we pointed out, the doctrine that the Constitution was a treaty between independent States, from which any one State could withdraw at pleasure, and in which, *a fortiori*, any State could, by *State legislation*, forbid the execution

of any federal law within its borders. We pressed the *Times* on the matter because the revival of Stalwartism and the preparation of the public mind for "a strong man" in the White House, which are exercising such a debauching influence on politics, have, in our opinion, been largely brought about by the wild and reckless exaggerations and distortions of the newspapers as to the Southern position in the last session of Congress. The *Times* has done more mischief in this way than others, because it has an air of independence and a certain moderation and precision of statement, when not telling stories of "outrages."

It now confesses "that the South has not formally proclaimed its determination to try the experiment of rebellion a second time, if its pretensions to supremacy be not forthwith recognized." It has felt justified in announcing the revival of the Calhoun doctrine because Mr. Blackburn, of Kentucky made "a sweeping declaration which, in substance, was that the South meant to wipe off the statute-book the Republican legislation of the war and reconstruction eras." What Blackburn said, therefore, was, in plain English, that he would, if he could get a majority of the House and Senate to agree with him, repeal certain acts of Congress. Now, when, Esteemed Contemporary, did it become "secession" and "revolution" to predict that a majority of both Houses of Congress would repeal laws passed in the same body? We ought to add that the *Times*, feeling that this was a little weak as an account of a "presentation" and "declaration" of the doctrine of secession "*in Congress*," proposes "to take in connection with it" "the virtual nullification" (where and by whom?) "of the three Constitutional Amendments," "open disregard" of certain laws, "and hostility toward local Republican governments." But when "taking things in connection," why not do it largely and liberally? Why not "take in" the widespread habit of alcoholic intoxication, the practice of carrying deadly weapons, and the cheating of the cross-roads grocers at the South?

The Organ is evidently greatly troubled in mind about "the mania for scratching" which he says is spreading, but he is evidently puzzled to know how to deal with it. On Friday he approached "the young men," who, he says, are afflicted with it, in the character of an Indignant Moralist, and solemnly warned them that "they were working for the Democratic party." Turning to Governor Robinson, he declined "to speak harshly of him," but predicted that within a few weeks he would be tormented by "bitter self-reproach." On Tuesday he took up the rôle of a very Wise Old (but saddened) Man who had seen and suffered a great deal, and knew the hollowness of youthful joys. He recalled to the young Scratchers the delusion of the "large-eyed boys" about the "tree-tops on the far horizon touching the sky," and about "the mirage"; and mentioned somewhat obscurely that, while the Wise Old Man "skirted the shores of what he hoped he had learned," "the barks" of the Scratchers "sat lightly on the furthest verge of what they thought they knew"—which sounds unpleasantly like a conundrum. He then went on to intimate to them that he had almost every variety of human experience and knew that "scratching" was vanity, that no good and some harm might come of it, and that when they had lived as long as this Wise (but sad) Old Man they would see this themselves. But we cannot help believing that he is not nearly as old as he says he is, and has not been through nearly so much as he says he has, or he would know that no young man was ever yet prevented from trying a thing by an old man's warning that there was no fun in it. In fact, the cases in which one man's experience has been useful to another man at any age are very rare. These young Scratchers will not be stopped from scratching by hearing that the venerable editor of the *Tribune* has tried it and thinks it foolishness. Nor should they. They will probably care

nothing for scratching when they are as old and weary as he is; but why anticipate the melancholy period when they will be, like him, "skirting the shores of what they hope they have learned"? Our advice to them is, after having read carefully the Organ's opinion, to scratch while they are young—and we venture to assure them that better scratching than Cornell they will never meet with. One of his attractions is that he is a powerful conductor—that is, that every scratch he gets will send a most uncomfortable thrill through the frame of every political trickster and wirepuller in the United States.

After a stormy week the police troubles have at length come to an end, and, on the whole, in a way which is more satisfactory to everybody interested in a fair election than seemed probable a month ago. The struggle for the last few days has been over the appointment of the fourth set of inspectors "claimed" respectively by Tammany and Anti-Tammany. These, not having been appointed on the 1st of the month, it was clear that the Police Commissioners must be mandamus-ed to appoint them by the General Term, or they must be removed by the Mayor, or both. On the 1st, therefore, the Mayor notified Messrs. MacLean, French, and Morrison that they were charged "by and before" himself with not appointing inspectors of election, and that they would have an opportunity to be heard the next day in their defence. These new "charges" created the utmost consternation among the Tammany politicians, but they were met by an application to the General Term for a mandamus. Meanwhile in the Police Board matters had arrived at a deadlock amid scenes of great noise and confusion, the Republican Commissioners making a stand for Tammany inspectors, which the *Tribune* says was a sacrifice of themselves for the public good that can never be forgotten. On Thursday Messrs. French and Wheeler withdrew formally from the Board, on the ground that it was evident that nothing could be accomplished. The Mayor meantime postponed action on his "charges" until the matter of the mandamus could be determined by the Supreme Court.

On Friday matters came to a crisis in the shape of an argument on the application for a mandamus. At the conclusion of the argument the Court announced that they had arrived at a unanimous conclusion as to the true interpretation of the election law; that they still thought, as they had previously announced, that the duty of the Commissioners was to consider the Democratic party as an entirety, with a view only to its relations to State issues, and without regard to local organizations. But the Board had actually appointed inspectors from one faction without considering another faction. Two-thirds of the party in the city had been left unrepresented. The Board must select, if from either, then from both, and the court, therefore, considered it the duty of the Board to select the remaining inspectors from Tammany Hall. This announcement was followed by immense applause, and the judges adjourned the matter to give the Commissioners an opportunity to act without being actually mandamus-ed. The decision of the General Term was speedily followed by a mandamus, and this by the appointment of the remaining quarter of the inspectors from Tammany Hall.

The result, therefore, is that the Republicans have two inspectors, anti-Tammany one, and Tammany one, at each place of registration and each poll. Among "practical men" the effect of this division upon the result of the election is variously estimated. Some "practical men" think that the Tammany inspectors will all be seduced to the Robinson side before the critical moment comes; others believe that the two Republican and the one Tammany inspector will unite for a campaign of fraud, and that no power can stop them. These three can select a chairman at each poll, and a chairman of inspectors is known to be a very important person. At the same time, if we do not assume that the object the inspectors have in view is to enable one or other party to cheat, a representation of all factions at the polls seems a tolerably just way of securing that sort of inspection which the election law

seems to contemplate as a safeguard against cheating. But the mandamus has one extraordinary feature which ought to attract the attention of lawyers. It not only directs the Commissioners to exercise their discretion by choosing inspectors, but points out the particular body of persons from whom they are to choose, which, if we are not mistaken, is an unprecedented use of the writ.

Town elections were held and two constitutional amendments voted upon in Connecticut on Monday. The amendments, one of which substituted biennial for annual sessions of the legislature and the other fixed the expiration of the Supreme and Superior Courts' judges' terms at seventy-five years of age, instead of seventy as heretofore, were both defeated by large and in some places, such as New Haven, unexpected majorities. The town elections resulted generally in Republican successes. The "issues" were various in different sections. In New Britain, for example, there was unusual excitement over the choice of members of the School Board. It seems that in 1862 the board were persuaded to allow the Roman Catholics, who formed then and do now a large portion of the population, to erect and support a town school, with the restriction that there should be no religious teaching during school hours. Since then no Protestants have sent their children thither notwithstanding its nominally unsectarian character, and recently the Roman Catholic priest of the vicinage, who is a member of the board, asked town support for a convent just erected, and for permission for the nuns to teach in their ecclesiastical robes. The board granted his request, but their action roused such a storm of popular indignation that they had to rescind it. Eight of the twelve members were Republicans, but the successors of four of these were to be chosen Monday, and it was feared, the Democrats might get a majority and assent to "Father Carmody's" demands. The Republican candidates were, however, elected, and for the present, at least, New Britain seems saved from the dominion of the Romish hierarchy. The incident may, nevertheless, be taken as evidence that the Roman Catholics by no means regard New England as sacred territory, and are indeed making headway in a region not many removes from the Puritan "burying-grounds" of Saybrook. We beg to call the attention of the female voters of Massachusetts to this matter.

The Chicago *Tribune*—whose condition for the last few years has caused so much regret to the friends of rational journalism—has apparently been roused almost to madness by the "beat" inflicted on it by the Chicago *Times* in its recent letters on the Yazoo trouble, which the *Nation* condensed. It ascribes to us "the opinion that murder is a proper check on the practice of inciting negroes to exercise their Constitutional rights in a lawful manner," and accuses us "of virtually declaring that Northerners in the South ought to be killed." To which we reply that the editor of the *Tribune* has apparently had no vacation this summer, and that he ought to take a long one and take it at once, and, if possible, in a foreign country where the noise of American politics would not reach him.

A new Indian war broke out during the week among the Utes, whose reservation is on the extreme western confines of Colorado. The immediate cause of it was an appeal from the White River agent, Mr. N. C. Meeker, for protection against a portion of his charge, who had forcibly resisted his attempts to plough a certain field, and had actually assaulted him and driven him out of his house on September 8. On the 16th Major Thornburgh, with three companies of cavalry, was ordered to the rescue, and on the 29th, when near Milk Creek, fell into an ambush of which he and eleven of his command were the first victims, while a large number were wounded. The troops, under Captain Payne, were driven back upon their wagon-train, and having entrenched themselves near water and sent out a runner with tidings of the disaster, maintained themselves as best they could. The news reached Omaha on October 1, when reinforcements were instantly hurried forward, and at this writing are said to have joined the besieged. It is reported,

and believed, that all the white residents at the Agency have been massacred, including Mr. Meeker's daughter and other members of his family.

The remoter causes of the outbreak are variously stated. According to the Western view, the Utes are "lazy, thieving, murdering vagabonds," "peaceable in so far as they are not in organized insurrection, but as individuals constantly committing depredations of the most exasperating character." The Eastern opinion, on the contrary, is that the tribe has the reputation of being very peaceful and friendly, and their present discontent is attributed to their not having received their pay for the San Juan mining district ceded by them in 1873; to the fact that the Unitarian Missionary Board had no hand in the naming of Mr. Meeker, as of previous agents under Grant's policy; and to Mr. Meeker's ploughing up land which he had no right to cultivate without the owners' consent. It appears that collisions during the past summer between the miners and the Utes have been frequent, that the Utes have extensively burned woods and slaughtered game, and terrified the settlers in North and Middle Parks by incursions from the reservation, and that fancied injustice or fear of mining encroachment has at last stirred them to revolt.

The Supreme Court of Pennsylvania has rendered a decision holding the County of Allegheny in that State responsible for losses occasioned by the Pittsburgh riots of 1877. The suit was brought to recover the value of whiskey shipped at Cincinnati for Philadelphia, and destroyed *en route*. The Legislature of Pennsylvania in 1841 passed an act making the counties of the State responsible for all losses by mob or riot within their borders, and it is on this act that the decision is based. The counsel retained by the county made the point that the disturbances through which the loss was caused were not such as were contemplated by the law, but amounted to an insurrection spreading through several States. The court, however, disposed of this very speedily, and no one who remembers the disgraceful circumstances connected with the Pittsburgh riots can fail to recognize the justice of its remarks:

"We see no evidence of any serious attempt upon the part of the local authorities to suppress it. At the time of its commencement a feeble attempt was made by the sheriff, resulting in the enrolment of some half-dozen deputies. But there was no proclamation calling upon the body of the county to come to his assistance in preserving the peace. No one doubts at this day that if a proper effort had been made at the proper time the mob could have been held in check."

It must be said, however, that the Alleghenians may fairly retort that if the State militia had not been in a very ineffective and demoralized condition the riots would probably never have taken place at all, and that the sheriff and his "posse," which is all the means that a county ordinarily has at its command to suppress disturbance, are of comparatively little use when the sheriff is an elective officer, dependent on the votes of the people whose outbreak he is to be called upon to quell, and the "posse" are longing to join the rioters. In one case in Pennsylvania, we believe, the sheriff was obliged to hire a "posse" at ten dollars a head, but even then when the pinch came these volunteers at the call of duty were not to be found. The only field in which the *posse comitatus* really rallies about the sheriff and disperses rioters and restores quiet is the imaginary *civitas* of the Southern Democratic orator. In actual life mobs are put down by soldiers with breech-loaders, or else they are not put down; and as a matter of fact this is what happened at Pittsburgh, where the mob took possession of the city and held it for some time against all comers.

The returns of the Prussian elections put the Liberals in a decided minority. The Liberals and Progressists together elected thus far number 135, while the Conservatives and Ultramontanes together number 246. There are about 25 nondescripts outside these divisions. A majority made up of Conservatives and Ultramontanes may not be very manageable, but in one way or another

Bismarck will make it serve his purpose. He promises a reduction of direct taxes, the purchase of the railroads by the state, and a subsequent reduction of fares and freight charges by a reduction in the expenses of management. His visit to Vienna has been a great success. He was well received by everybody, and is said to have come to a thoroughly good understanding with Austria as to the course to be pursued in case of any further trouble in the East on the part of Russia.

We have discussed elsewhere the discontent of the Irish tenant-farmers, which seems to be becoming more and more formidable. The tenants in several large districts have refused to pay unless they get a large reduction—in one case they refused to accept 30 per cent. reduction—and, if they stand together, it is difficult to see how they can be made to pay. Wholesale eviction is simply impossible, and so is wholesale seizure of personal property. The Government are sending cavalry over, but cavalry can do nothing against general passive resistance. The worst of the situation is that a heavy lowering of rents under pressure of this kind must almost inevitably lead before long to the total abolition of rents by a similar process. The moral sanction under which Irish tenants pay their rent is so feeble that the discovery that they could not be legally compelled to pay would at once destroy it. Mr. Parnell is working for the holding of a convention of three hundred in Dublin to discuss Irish questions, but the other prominent Home-Rulers oppose it. Such bodies were illegal until a few years ago, when the Prohibitory Act, which probably kept scores of conventions from meeting, was repealed.

The news from Afghanistan, which now comes exclusively through military channels, press correspondents not being allowed to accompany the forces in the field, is varied. General Roberts is pushing on with a small and lightly-equipped force for Kabul, which he hopes to take by a *coup de main*, and was to have been before the place by this time. If, however, he should encounter an obstinate resistance, which is not likely, he would be in an awkward position, as his communications by the Shatur Gardan Pass are already difficult, and indeed interrupted, and the Khybar Pass line does not seem to be yet thoroughly open. At the Aylesbury dinner Lord Beaconsfield did not make the slightest allusion to Afghan affairs, which were then filling the public mind with the deepest anxiety, but continued his chatter about the three charges on land, a notion for which he seems to have a childish fondness. He seems to find it impossible to get it into his head that land might so fall in value that the man who bought it would lose his purchase money, and that it would only pay the laborer who tilled it. He thinks, apparently, that land produces rent, or a fund answering to rent, by a natural law.

There is little or no progress visible in the discussion of the land question by the politicians in England. The Liberals promise to take it up whenever they get into office, but nobody of note is willing to say what they ought to do. The discussion in the press seems to point to legislation removing some or all of the present legal restrictions on absolute ownership—that is, putting an end to entails under marriage settlements and wills, and perhaps forbidding mortgages; or, in other words, obliging a man when he wished to raise money on his land to sell some of it. This would gradually, no doubt, effect a great change of ownership. Land would pass rapidly from the possession of needy, indebted men into the possession of men who could pay cash for it. But who would these men be? The Conservatives maintain they would be rich men owning large estates, because poor men could not afford to own property yielding so small an interest, and the Radicals that they would be peasants seeking small holdings. The Conservative view assumes, probably falsely, that land would not fall heavily in value if it were no longer possible to use it as an inalienable basis for family influence, social and political. If it did fall heavily it would pay a very good interest.

THE REVIVAL OF THE GRANT "BOOM."

SINCE the arrival of General Grant in San Francisco the phenomenon known as the "Grant boom" has again begun to show itself—that is to say, the conviction has again begun to find expression in the press that he will be the nominee of the Republican Convention. The enthusiasm about him which prevails among the Republicans in all parts of the country, since his foreign tour, cannot be prevented, it is believed, from making its way into the Convention, and the tendency to nominate him under the influence of that enthusiasm, "by acclamation," will be stimulated by a variety of agencies. In the first place, there will be a numerically powerful body of delegates from the Southern States, who will be troubled by no sense of responsibility, inasmuch as they know they can supply no votes for any candidate at the election, and will therefore come to the Convention in the generous and reckless spirit of men who are about to spend other people's money freely. They will, therefore, support General Grant vigorously because they liked his ways when he was in power, and would be glad to be once more under his rule, and the difficulty of electing him—if difficulty there be—will not be their affair, but the affair of the Northern States. Thus they will do all that noise and numbers can do to carry his nomination by afflatus. In the second place, those Northern delegates who may doubt the wisdom of bringing him once more into the arena will be discouraged by the fact that they have nobody of mark to oppose to him. None of the prominent competitors, Blaine, Conkling, Sherman, and Edmunds, is very weighty, and only one of them—Blaine—has any "magnetism," and his "boom" is "sicklied o'er" by the probable difficulties of his canvass. Every one of them, too, would sooner see General Grant nominated than any of the others, and would probably work in that sense at the Convention. In fact, General Grant would be the only one who would have really ardent supporters. In the third place, the difficulties with which the Republicans find themselves contending in the various State elections—for we take it for granted that, even if they win in Ohio and New York, the victories there will not be much more inspiring than that in Maine—in a measure force them to take up the man who, whatever his faults, they think likely to get them most votes, and Grant is apparently that man. Some of them still, on third-term and other grounds, make a show of hesitating about him, and say they will not nominate him unless "the policy of fraud, intimidation, violence, and murder is to prevail at the South; unless the Constitutional Amendments are to be nullified and defied," etc., etc.

We need hardly say, however, that if they think it desirable to nominate him on other grounds there will be no lack of unanimity in declaring that all these necessary contingencies have come to pass. It is observable already that as the struggle draws nearer the case of the South becomes blacker and blacker. The crimes which are committed here and there over its whole area, which, atrocious as they may be, are but the natural and normal products of its social state, are treated as reasons not for the more perfect working of the old American mode of producing peace and order, but as arguments for a resort to a kind of veiled Cæsarism. If you ask them what Grant will do to convert the Southern Barksdales and Dixons into respectable citizens, they turn the conversation towards the necessity of "bringing public opinion to bear on these fellows." In fact, the Grant movement has all the strength of a foregone conclusion. It is very much like the Duc de Broglie's reason for converting MacMahon into a dictator. His account of the designs of the Republicans was always very dark, but when pressed for a bill of particulars he never got beyond a charge of "latent Radicalism," and of a desire to "destroy all the institutions of the country." Our Conservatives in like manner scent latent murder, secession, repudiation, arson, rebellion, and State-rights on every breeze from the South.

It is a curious fact, and one which well illustrates the immoral thoughtlessness which underlies the movement, that in two Republican States at this moment the best class of Republicans are fighting desperately against two of General Grant's most promi-

nent favorites and confederates when in power, Butler and Conkling—men whose political influence was built up by the control of the Federal patronage in their respective States given them by the late Administration—and that no supporter of the movement has thought it necessary up to the present to give any reason for thinking that should General Grant be again elected these men will not resume their old places. That Conkling believes he will resume his, he does not in the least attempt to conceal. That General Grant has in a two years' tour in foreign countries, of only one of which he understood the language, at the ripe age of fifty-seven learned to distrust his old advisers, is a purely gratuitous assumption. His nomination after his return, by his old party, before he had opened his lips about his plans or intentions, would of course be to him, as to any man in like circumstances, a solemn and emphatic assurance that he did right in trusting them, and ought to do it again. He could not have a more distinct approval of his past style of administration, and it would be an approval against which the wisdom acquired in foreign hotels and at foreign dinner-tables would naturally and properly count for nothing. Another example of the spirit in which his "boom" is being propagated was supplied the other day in the sapient speech of a prominent converted "Liberal," that he had gone back to the party because Mr. Hayes had destroyed the Republican majorities, showing that the man's memory did not even go back to 1874 and 1876, when, under the inspiring influence of General Grant's Administration, the Republicans lost both houses of Congress, and but for the Returning Boards would have lost the Presidency.

That, if General Grant should be nominated in the manner we have described, his election would be made difficult by anything the Democrats will do, seems very unlikely. Even if they had any wisdom to show in their nominations, the opportunity of showing it would probably be denied them by the hold which Mr. Tilden has got on them, and which seems in the present state of political science to be unshakable. He has, as we pointed out some weeks ago, the only Democratic Machine in existence, and, however much individual Democrats may kick or complain, and however often the Republican moralists may expose him, the chances are that his forces will appear at the Convention practically unbroken, and that he will once again be a competitor for the Presidency—this time with the aureole of a defrauded martyr round his head. The alternative which this would present in 1880 to the friends of good government would not be a pleasant one.

To have to choose between Grant and Tilden at a crisis which, more than any other in American history, called for purity in administration, and for patient and steady reliance on the authority and the working of the law (rather than on any man's personal qualities) to wipe out the traces of the civil war, and enable conflicting races and classes to live together in peace and prosperity, is something from which every right-minded and intelligent voter must shrink in the quiet of his own home, if not when shouting at public meetings. The way to escape it, however, is not to keep quiet between now and next June, and treat the Grant "boom" or any other "boom" as a visitation of Providence which may not be pleasant in its outward aspects, but must be accepted and endured. A "boom," like other follies in a free state, is not impregnable to discussion and opposition. Behind all "booms" there lies the sober second thought, if not of the central mass of the party which votes the ticket in all weathers, of that large and growing body of independents without whose aid in the present state of politics neither party can elect its candidate, and which has only, as we now know, to show itself in time to inspire caution in the people who control primaries and manage conventions. The revival of the "boom" ought to show this class, which is now engaged in resisting the trickery and usurpation in this State of the leading boomster, the propriety of converting themselves between now and next summer into something like a permanent organization, through which the loose vote might threaten and restrain the sages who provide the parties with candidates, and give something and somebody to rally about, if necessary, after the conventions had acted. If

such an organization could do nothing else it could remind the Republicans that the nomination of a saviour of society is a desperate game, in which a political party stakes its very existence. A party which confesses it has nobody for its highest office but a soldier who has already more than failed as a civil functionary, virtually agrees to dissolve if it cannot elect him.

ENGLISH AND IRISH LAND AGITATION.

THE success of the Home Rule party in the British House of Commons in compelling the Government to pass the bill founding a new university in Ireland in a shape to suit the Catholic clergy, and in modifying the Army Discipline Act, combined with the fact that in many of the English boroughs the Irish voters now hold the balance of power, has given Irish discontent a weight which it has not had in English eyes since the death of O'Connell, and a respectability which it has not had within this century. For many years Mr. Isaac Butt was the soul and centre of the Irish party, and his talents and tact, and his Protestantism, did a great deal to secure it consideration. At his death it was supposed it would fall into contempt, but Mr. Parnell, also a Protestant in good social standing, has, after incurring boundless odium as an Obstructionist, achieved sufficient success as a parliamentary tactician to make him loom up very formidably as Butt's successor. He came out of the last session with considerable prestige, having distinctly got the better of the Ministry on several occasions, and has gone over to Ireland to engage in a land agitation, in which he appears as an agrarian of the most pronounced kind. His remedy for the troubles from which the Irish farmers in common with the English are suffering, is total refusal to pay rent, or what he calls passive resistance. If this policy were carried out, he thinks the landlords would either be content with a very low rent and concede absolute fixity of tenure, or else they would be willing to sell the land outright to the tenants for a trifle and take their departure. Talk of this kind makes one curious to know what Mr. Parnell is doing for his own tenants, for he too is a landlord; but we find no mention of this or even allusion to it in the English or Irish newspapers. If he is collecting his rents and holding on to his land like the others whom he is denouncing, it will be one more illustration of the facility with which popular agitators keep their private affairs separate from their politics. There is no more bitter enemy of capitalists and of luxury than General Butler, but he continues to be nevertheless a very grasping capitalist himself, and makes no scruple about keeping a large yacht. This contradiction between principle and practice is easier in Ireland than here, as a leader is there the object of much deeper homage. His followers, no matter what the nature of the gospel he preaches, think nothing too good for him in the way of material enjoyment, and it is not unlikely that Mr. Parnell's are quite prepared to enjoy the ministrations of a prosperous landlord who fiercely denounces landlordism.

The proposal to bring the landlords to terms by passive resistance is probably a reminiscence of the resistance to the tithes of the Established Church, which was completely successful. The Catholics refused to pay, and when their cattle or goods were seized and put up at auction by the tithe proctor such angry crowds attended the sale that no man dared to bid. This system of raising ecclesiastical revenues accordingly perished before Parliament had time to abolish it. But it was, after all, a trifling matter compared to the rent question. The tithes concerned no one but a handful of Protestant ministers. Rents concern everybody in Ireland who owns anything. Enormous amounts of money have been invested in or lent on land since 1847, and there are the same charges on it as in England in the shape of jointures and other annuities. Any serious interference with the landlord's title which did not involve full compensation would shake confidence in all owners of property to a degree that would be ruinous to the country. People are, in fact, already talking of the shrewdness of Sir Robert Peel in forbidding in his will the investment in Ireland of any portion of the fortune bequeathed by him. The plan of giving Irish discontent a final quietus by having the state buy the landlords out and resell the

land to the tenants, who should repay it the purchase-money in instalments, is open to the probably fatal objection that the tactics which had succeeded against the landlords would be tried against the Government, and successfully—that is, an agitation would soon spring up for the total remission of the debt, on the ground that the farmers could not pay it, and if they could that it was but a small portion of what had been wrung from the Irish peasantry by English oppression. In fact, it is all but certain that no ministry would ever be strong enough or brave enough to enforce the law against general opposition.

It is difficult to say how widespread the anti-rent agitation now raging is. It is probably as yet confined to districts in which the farmers have suffered to an unusual degree from the bad weather, and may subside as the times improve. The Catholic clergy, too, will discountenance it, as they discountenance all subversive schemes. But the failure both of Gladstone's Land Tenure Act, which practically protects the tenant against arbitrary eviction and gives him security for his improvements, and of the disestablishment of the Protestant Church, which constituted for two centuries the great sentimental grievance of the Irish Catholics, to root out Irish discontent, especially when taken in connection with the fact that the Irish are now a power in many English constituencies, is evidently making Irish polities a source of more anxiety in England than it has been since 1782. A land question in England threatening the English landlords with some sort of huge disturbance—nobody as yet knows what—is something to which no English politician looked forward as one of the possibilities even of the coming century. If any politician had foreseen it he would have predicted that it would infuse fresh gravity into Irish difficulties, as certainly as George III. predicted that the success of the American revolt would produce one in Ireland. If the Liberals take up the English land tenures as a party question, as now seems likely, they must inevitably give a strong stimulus to the restlessness of the Irish tenants, and these for half a dozen reasons cannot be satisfied even with twice what will suffice to content the English tenants. They have different memories and different traditions, and different legal ideas, and have never been in the same kindly relations with their landlords.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* tries to meet the trouble by asking whether Englishmen have not been sorry long enough for their bygone ill-treatment of Ireland, which was, after all, only a bit of retaliation inflicted on the Catholics for the cruelties which the latter were inflicting on the Protestants all over Europe, and whether, therefore, it is not high time to shut their ears to Irish agitation and act as if Ireland had nothing to complain of. But this, of course, could be readily disposed of by any reader of the history of the eighteenth century. Ireland was on the fair way to a considerable degree of prosperity by the growth of her trade and industry, after the overthrow of James II., in spite of the Penal Laws, when she was flung back into hopeless poverty by the barbarous restrictions placed on both by the English Parliament on the demand of English merchants and manufacturers, who began on Ireland the experiment which toward the close of the century resulted, when tried on this side of the Atlantic, in the loss of the American colonies. This legislation had nothing to do with religion. It was aimed at Protestant settlers of the English race as well as Catholics of the Celtic race, and not out of hatred—whether justifiable or unjustifiable—of Popery, but for the common and familiar purpose of making money by keeping rivals out of the market. The result was to prevent the recovery of Ireland after the civil war, to fling the people back on rude agriculture—without a foreign market—as their only resource, and to prevent the growth of the habits of order, industry, and mutual forbearance and moderation which successful trade brings with it. It kept the peasantry in the position of degraded but ferocious serfs, and the gentry in that of lawless and overbearing masters of serfs. It is the effects of this devilish policy on the national character which, more than anything else, to-day makes Ireland difficult to

govern, and the problem cannot be solved now by a determination on the part of Englishmen to forget Irish history.

It must be said, on the other hand, that with the best will in the world Englishmen have never succeeded in governing any other community than England in a manner satisfactory to the members of it. To what defect of their mental or moral constitution this failure is due we shall not enquire here. The fact is notorious, and the government of Ireland by the House of Commons is really the government of Ireland by Englishmen. For this Englishmen of this generation are not altogether to blame. They have got out of the difficulty as regards Scotland, with much good sense, by letting the Scotch members of the House of Commons practically settle all Scotch legislation. The difficulty of pursuing this course with regard to Ireland is, that the Irish members virtually represent two nations divided, if not by hates and prejudices, by widely-differing traditions, faiths, and political and social ideals, and cannot be got to agree on anything; so that Englishmen, if anything is to be done for Ireland at all, have themselves to settle what it is to be. But Ireland, as she stands to-day, is what England has made her. England keeps her because she is useful to the Empire, and must make the best of her, along with the weather and the American competition.

THE GRAPHIC METHOD.

BERLIN, August 20.

THE origin and nature of our knowledge of motion has become a question of the first importance for philosophers of all schools. According to Trendelenburg, logic requires us to make movement the ultimate explanation of all things. From the standpoint of evolution, Spencer argues that there is a direct and universal relation between quantity and heterogeneity of motion and the degree of development of nervous centres. Even according to Haeckel, soul-life, whatever be its nature, seems to begin at least as low down as in contractile tissue. Vierordt holds that psychologically motion is not a perception but an immediate sensation, and that thus the muscle-sense is absolutely unique, in that the incommensurability between the objective thing and the subjective knowledge of it, found in each of the five old-fashioned senses, does not exist here. From the standpoint of the theory of knowledge (*Erkenntnistheorie*) Helmholtz argues that sensations are nothing but guides for movements, and that, apart from the practical use we can make of a thing, all other conceptions of it are as impossible as the blind man's notion that sounds are colored. The same drift may be seen in Wundt, Exner, and others. Partly influenced by such conceptions, and partly by the intrinsic richness and suggestiveness of the field, myology is now considered by many as a branch of psychology scarcely less important than the study of the senses, connected as it generally is, through the doctrine of apperception, with the study of the will itself, and throwing light on its education, its nature, and its freedom.

It is in this connection, in recording movement as a function of life, that the graphic method so well described in epitome by Marey* has achieved its greatest triumphs. Every one knows how apprehensible and compendious statistics of all sorts—winds, produce, the business of railroad lines, electric tension, temperature, national debt and credit, insurance probabilities, etc.—may be made by representing them as the product of two variables laid off as right-angle co-ordinates, each as function of the other, with curves tracing their relation on a surface (for example, age and death-rate), or adding the representation of a third dimension by colors or shades, as census-tables of population, altitude, etc.—a method which Quetelet has introduced into political and anthropological science with such interest and success. The results of long and tedious investigations, such as the direction of aerolites; the periodic tides of lakes; the sensibility of the different zones of the retina to different colors; the trajectory of a balloon; the relative growth of the different sexes in childhood; the solubility of different salts at different temperatures; weight and cost of bridges of different materials; the growth of different plants under different chemical, thermal, and luminous conditions; phases of the solar spots; the elasticity of nerves, etc., may thus all be comprehended at a glance even by a tolerably inexperienced eye. It is superior to all other modes of describing many phenomena. Language was born before science, and even its technicalities are often ambiguous. The senses, too, are often deceived. The persistence of after-

images produces confusion in the eye, to which latter the whole science of astronomy gives the lie. But the graphic method is fast becoming the international language of science, remarkably accurate in seizing subtle shades of change, and adapted equally to investigation and to didactic purposes. In Germany, where it is most developed, it has revolutionized certain sciences by its unique logical method, and in one or two cases at least has converted the lecture-room into a sort of theatre, where graphic charts are the scenery, changed daily with the theme, and where the lecturer is mainly occupied in describing his curves and instruments, and signalling assistants, who darken the room, explode gases, throw electric lights or sunbeams, simple or colored, upon mirrors or lenses, or strike up harmonic overtones, as the case may be.

As a microscope of time and space this method has achieved its most remarkable triumphs. By a mirror mounted on a syren, and rotating in a sunbeam with rapidity determined by the pitch, the ten-thousandth part of a second may be easily and accurately measured, and thus the horizontal line on which time-measurements are laid off may be divided to represent, if necessary, even these small durations. By a method which he does not reveal, Nobert has succeeded in dividing a millimetre, or the one twenty-fifth of an inch, into thirty-five hundred equal parts, each somewhat smaller than a powerful microscope enables one to perceive. Each of these can be laid off on a perpendicular line at right angles to the first, and their concomitant variations can be traced by a curve. Although capable of such minuteness for tracing out a "cosmos in the microcosm," it need scarcely be said that every inch may just as well represent millions of years or miles as infinitesimals. Armed with this method, it has been recently proved that the quickest and slightest motion of the finger which a pianist can make is not a simple but a compound and prolonged act of the will: each of the six different gaits of a horse may be minutely described in as many different lines; the frequency and exact direction of the motion of the wing of a flying insect may be traced directly upon smoked glass, and if required, according to the practice of some popular lecturers, shown the next minute to an audience magnified upon the screen of a magic lantern; the one-tenth of a second intervening between an impression upon one of the senses and the quickest possible reaction (known as the personal equation) may be analyzed, as by Donders, and apportioned, in its twelve distinct elements, among sensory organs, ganglion-cells, nerve-tracts, latent muscular time, etc., the action of each occupying its own fixed fraction of a second. By immersing the hand in a closed cylinder of water ending in a small perpendicular tube, on which floats a pen that writes on a revolving drum, not only is every heart-beat shown to swell the hand appreciably, but even fear, anxiety, hunger, different drugs, pressures, etc., all record their own characteristic forms of pulse-curves.

But it is not my object—indeed it would require far more space than you would allow me—even to name the achievements of this method, nor do I care here to urge its more extended use in schools, by the daily press, etc., as is often done in Germany. I would rather raise an ulterior, and even in some respects, perhaps, premature, question as to its capabilities and the sort of value attaching to it. First, though it may be possible to reduce the syllogistic logic to graphic symbols and equations, we are not yet able to believe that thought will ever find here an adequate general vehicle for its inscription which will supersede the old Cadmic method, as an enthusiastic young professor here has lately argued, any more than Aryan myths will be better told in the purely hypothetical old Aryan tongue. Words may be recorded in phonographic type, or in overtone series on a musical bar, as by Helmholtz, or in lip curves, as by Brücke, or in symbols of the position of the organs of speech, as by Graham Bell, etc., but the alphabetic method will no more be superseded than words themselves will be resolved into more radical expressions of psychologic tension. This, almost as a matter of course, I think. Again, I cannot believe that physiological phenomena will be ever to any great extent reproduced from any combination of the various curves they trace, as sound is reproduced from the curves inscribed in the tin-foil of a phonograph; yet even this is sometimes strongly urged. Once more, it is chiefly argued that the movements are absolutely regular and constant under the same conditions. This idea has stimulated very many to study the methods of analytical geometry, and has done much directly and indirectly to develop the application of mathematics to curves of all sorts of co-ordinates. Whether this can ever be done for organic, as it is for inorganic, structure and forces, is perhaps the most modern phase of the old question between mechanism and teleology, which I have no wish to discuss, and which may not, indeed, reach the discussable stage for many decades. Not that I am without impressions and prejudices enough, but because it seems to me one of the questions respecting which it is most

* La Méthode Graphique dans les sciences expérimentales. Par E. J. Marey. Paris. 1878.

philosophic to cultivate equanimity in suspense. On the one hand, the near and constant approximation to exact proportions, and on the other the invariability of the residual deviation, are equally surprising. While the equations for the curvature of the cornea, the rotation of the eyeball, the superposition of muscular and sensory irritation, etc., are pretty well developed, there is no single cornea, eyeball, or muscle curve, and no measured and averaged series of such, that gives the precise curve; and thus the latter remains like the ideal head or arm which sculpture can create, but nature, so far as observed, has not created. Hence, it is said by some that the conditions of observation are not fully controlled. This the complexity of everything organic makes extremely plausible. Others assert that the statistics must be universal before the perfect mechanical cosmos is unveiled. This is certainly beyond the present reach of contradiction.

One of the impressions of Theophrastus Such is, that as the sum of human knowledge is reduced to motion in time and space, and as it becomes possible to conceive of self-reproducing machines which can give readings for the whirl of molecules engaged in composing an epic, etc., consciousness will become extinct, since molecular combinations will persist as the most fitting survivals; in a word, all will be action, while knowledge, and even sensation, will be superseded. I instance this as a purely theoretic fallacy quite current among scientific laymen. It is logically and psychologically wrong. Both the tendencies and disciples of every theory of the unconscious are mystic and strongly teleological. Again, mechanized knowledge is now simply the most organized and known form of knowledge. Hypothetical mechanism is often merely the best and most serviceable sort of *memoria technica*, and is quite consistent with the philosophical faith that all mechanism is a form of knowing, now very practical but perhaps transient, and in no sense a *Ding an sich*. As science advances in the study of consciousness, its highest problem, it will perhaps find it no less serviceable to resolve all knowledge into the forms of self-knowledge, interpret force as will, etc.; and its ideal future, if it trouble itself to note its own dreams, may be rather more like the Hegelian millennium of all-consciousness than the actualization of a universal self-mending, self-governing, self-reproducing, self-knowing machine.

Correspondence.

SOUND MONEY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The term "honest money" is a dissolving view under the depraving influence of legal-tender notes. The letter of M. L. Scudder, jr., Secretary of the Chicago Honest Money League, in the *Nation* of the 18th, defines sound money, as viewed by that association, by stating that "in the opinion of those most active in its organization the object of its existence is nearly accomplished"; for that "It is plain that the American people cannot be successfully marshalled to demand an irredeemable currency or a debased coinage," and that the League looks to see the result of the Ohio election demonstrate that its work is finished.

By this the League accepts as a sound-money situation the standing issue of 346,000,000 of legal-tender notes, with any reduction of their volume forbidden, even if there should be a run for redemption, and with the Secretary of the Treasury required to sell bonds to get coin to redeem the notes to be shoved out again, continually increasing the interest-bearing debt. It accepts as honest money a perpetual issue of legal-tender notes which, if constitutional, makes the Constitution a thing of straw; an issue whose volume will ever depend on the party necessities of Congress, and will be the football of the elections; an issue whose existence will keep ever to the front the question why Congress does not dispense the whole of the paper money beneficence, instead of granting the privilege of the rest to the banks—a question which can never be satisfactorily answered to the common mind.

The League regards its honest-money mission as almost finished, and lays to itself the unction of the ancient Simeon, while a standing volume of three hundred and forty-six millions of greenbacks furnishes a legal-tender redeeming medium for three hundred and thirty millions of banknotes, with the free privilege of unlimited increase, which notes by one exchange come upon the coin in the Treasury, making a volume of paper money which altogether is now near seven hundred millions, and is rising, all resting at last on the coin in the Treasury—and certain to draw upon it when that inflation of prices which is inevitable from such

a volume of currency shall again raise our imports to excess, as it is sure to do in spite of our abundant farm crops.

The League is ready to retire on its laurels while a law stands which compels the coining of two millions of silver dollars a month, worth only about eighty-six cents, but full legal-tender for private and public debts. If paid out as the spirit of the law requires, these would soon reduce our revenues to silver, would expel gold from the country, and degrade our public credit to the fallen silver standard. Only the disregard of the silver law by Secretary Sherman, in locking up these silver dollars, prevents their debasing our money and revenues and dishonoring the public credit. But he cannot continue this locking up of two millions a month much longer. The Opposition will attack it, his own party does not support it, and his own political welfare will constrain him to force out this "debased coinage."

The result of the Ohio election will be no demonstration that the people "cannot be successfully marshalled to demand a debased coinage," if what is called the remonetization of silver be the debased coinage. And this, as it stands, is an argument for going to the logical end, by unlimited coinage and issue of silver, which means the single silver standard, and the dropping of our money and public faith fourteen to twenty per cent. And the Honest Money League thinks its mission almost finished at a time when inflation doctrines are more rampant and more presumptuous than ever, because now they have what is called the specie basis: when the sound-money party and its Administration are proclaiming "an inflation of sound money": when the doctrine is universally accepted in politics that the true aim of a sound-money system is the largest volume of paper money that can be "floated" on confidence in the promise to redeem in specie—a doctrine which is the opposite of all that was ever before called sound in money.

S. R. R.

CINCINNATI, September 29, 1879.

PRINT, PAPER, AND SCHOOL-BOOKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While you are upon the subject of glaring white paper and the injury it must do to the eyes of children, you would, perhaps, help both schoolmasters and pupils by calling the attention of the former to the great advantages of manila paper. I find it pleasant to the eye, cheap (either in the form of blank books, or arranged as a "pad" or tablet), and beyond comparison superior for school work or for literary men.

J.

NORWALK, CONN., Sept. 26, 1879.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter and comments in your last issue on "Glaring White Paper" recall an effort made a few years ago (though without success) to interest the Social Science Association, as well as various chemists here and there, in what still seems to me a reform of the utmost importance as affecting *all* the reading world, whether old or young. My own attention was called to it by an article in a Boston medical paper (January, 1872) by a man almost blind, detailing his experiments while gradually losing, and, as he hoped, gradually recovering, his sight. My own subsequent, somewhat careful, investigation of the subject confirmed his views, and I tried to influence scientific and practical men to work the subject up. Failing in this, and other interests intervening, I had lost sight of the subject temporarily till a paragraph in a recent paper stated that "a Russian physician, M. Maiarevsky, struck by the prevalence of shortsightedness among literary men, proposes that books should be printed in white ink on black paper, and he has made experiments with fifty persons which tend to confirm his view." This is the reform: no less than the reversal, or interchange, of the present colors of the written or printed page, so that, whatever colors (black and white, black and gray, blue and orange, or others) shall upon trial prove to be most desirable in themselves and as related to each other, *the ground shall always be darker than the letters*.

I cannot encroach on your space to show in detail the evils of the present system, nor to discuss what may be called the physics and chemistry of the question, or the difficulties, mechanical and financial, to be overcome in bringing about such a reform. Strange as it may seem at the first blush, our present system is based upon a physical paradox. We see objects only as they are lighted up—*i.e.*, reflect light to the eyes. When we read our present books or papers, then, we see everything but the very things we want to see—namely, the letters. We think we see the letters, but this is only because of the absence, just there, of a positive

impression on the retina ; and, startling as it may sound at first, we read the letters by *not seeing them*. We see the bright margin and the bright spaces around and between the letters ; the letters themselves we do not see. This negative sight is accompanied by serious evils. One might ask, What difference, practically, if we do virtually see the letters and draw a sense from them ?

Two points are to be noticed in reply : 1. Light, up to a certain degree, is a healthy stimulus to the eye; but light which pours in from the margin and other spaces of the present page upon the eye already strained in attention to the meaning of the letters, is in excess and must affect the eye somewhat as ardent spirits do the body, when an attempt is made to goad thus the weary body to new exertions. 2. Even the negative picture of the letters on the retina is blurred and obscured by the rays which enter the eye from various portions of the page, just as the shadows thrown on the ceiling by a chandelier are all rendered obscure and ill-defined by the *cross-lights* from the several burners.

Which is more grateful to the eye, a silhouette, by Konevka even, or the same sketch, equally well done, on a black slate ? A bronze bust against a white wall, or the same in white marble against a blue or black shield ? But I must pause, only noticing that consciously or unconsciously the reform is making gradual headway, for we see the street signs multiplying which present gilt or white letters on a ground of black or blue, and block-advertisements in which the ground only is printed and the letters left of the color of the page. If this reform could be carried out, diamond types be "anathema," and the present hair-lines in the lettering abandoned, which leave vacant places as the types grow worn, we might all hope for a longer lease of reading life, while many who now cannot or dare not look at a book could be restored once more to this precious enjoyment. What publisher, calling to his aid the paper-maker and ink-maker, will be the first to give us this great boon ?

H. D. C.

NEW YORK, Sept. 26, 1879.

[Several questions are here suggested.]

1. As regards distinctness. For the purpose of testing this point Professor Henry P. Bowditch, of the Harvard Medical School, prepared some words in black on a white ground, and some in white on a black ground, using stencils to ensure evenness and equality. The class of students were then asked to state which they distinguished most readily. It was found that the number of those preferring white letters on a black ground was slightly larger than of those preferring black letters on a white ground ; but not so much larger as to form a basis for inference. We have before us a MS. in white ink on lustreless black paper ; it reads with distinctness but is not perceptibly clearer than that written with a similar pen in the ordinary way. The effect of the white ink is startling and almost dazzling, owing to the purity of the color. A white letter on a blue ground might be equally distinct ; such a combination is preferred, on grounds of legibility, for the names of streets in the city of Paris.

2. Our correspondent observes that we do not literally see the black letters. This is true in a certain sense, but not in a sense which can be made a base for argument ; for what the eye requires in order to perceive form is simply a difference in color—a difference equally present in both the cases supposed. If argument *a priori* be justifiable, we may remark that a black page containing white letters forces the eye and the mind to concentrate their perceptive efforts upon small white objects ; the macula lutea, or most sensitive central portion, being taxed to appreciate a brilliant object instead of a black one. It is certainly trying to the eye to look for light-house lights, or stars ; and to an unaccustomed person the use of pure white letters on black paper seems a little dazzling. It is, nevertheless, true that a good many eyes, suffering from over-use, are pained by a moderate amount of light ; and to these a pure white paper and wide margins are abominations. A paper of neutral color, neither black nor blue, will probably prove the best basis for experiments in white-letter printing.

3. As regards methods, improvement is to be desired. Our copy of *L'autre monde, journal des trépassés*, printed white on black paper, has lost a good deal of its clearness by rubbing off of the ink ; it still presents an agreeable surface on the inside. The white

writing-ink is prepared with bismuth, a very heavy substance, and requires constant shaking up.—ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : In reading what you said of school-books in your issue of September 25 I could but wish you or some one who is able to affect public opinion would speak out against what, for the lack of a better name, might be called our "school-book burden." And I call it a "burden," for a burden it has become to the parents of this land to supply their children with the requisite number of school-books now thought necessary for a child to have. It is no uncommon thing for a pupil at the beginning of a school year to come home with a list for five dollars' worth of books ; and in poor families where there are three or four to provide for one can well see what a burden it is—in many instances quite sufficient to prevent parents from sending their children to school. We glory in our "free-school system," and well we may ; but it is doubtful if the extra cost of school-books at the present time does not more than overbalance what it used to cost for schooling before the free system came into operation. Everything pertaining to school-books looks to the interest of the book-publisher, and nothing to the interest of the pupil or parent. Every study must have its "series." A child, in order to learn to read, must have five or six readers, at a cost of four to five dollars, and three or four arithmetics, at a cost of three dollars more, and two geographies, at nearly three dollars more. And so of every study. The chief thought now seems to be to see how many books can be introduced into a study, or into how many books a study can be cut up, in order to furnish business for the book-publisher. Now, if there was any corresponding benefit to the pupil from all this, one might bear it ; but there is not. After some attention to the matter, I am disposed to believe that the average pupil of thirty years ago at sixteen was quite the equal of the pupil of to-day at the same age, with all his "modern improvements." He had not so many helps, as they are called, but he had more ability to think out things for himself. And yet compare the books of the boy of thirty or thirty-five years ago and of the boy of to-day.

Take the case of a boy in a country school in York State thirty-five years ago : One speller, which answered the purpose of a primary reader as well as speller, cost 12½ cents ; one English reader, 37½ cents ; one Hale's "History of the United States," which answered not only as a reader but a history, \$1. Here is a dollar and a half for his spelling, reading, and history. Now his readers alone (Sheldon's) will cost him \$4 25, history \$1 75, and speller 25 cents = \$6 25 for what then cost \$1 50 ; and the same difference in number and cost of arithmetics, while there is no corresponding difference in the scholarship and knowledge of the two. This school-book matter is certainly a crying evil, and an almost intolerable burden to large numbers of our people, and it is only their very great patience that causes them to bear it—not in silence, however, as our school-book publishers may find out to their grief some day, unless a change is made. I would that some of you who have the public ear, and have the interest of the people at heart, might speak out in this matter.

D.

ILLINOIS, Sept. 29, 1879.

ARMY RANK AND PROMOTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : I am glad to find that you discuss so freely the question of civilian appointments in the Army, for the following reasons :

No radical change can be effected in the Army by the powers inherent therein. The system, the education, the regulations, the custom, all go to preserve intact its virtues and its faults ; and nothing but the strongest outside pressure can make alterations possible or probable. The *Nation* is extensively read in the Army, and its criticisms respected, if not followed. The presumption is, that radical needs shown by it to exist will be a matter of correspondence, possibly of legislation ; and I repeat, therefore, I am glad it has shown an exact appreciation of a great need—somewhere.

I think, however, that the true secret of "something wrong" is not as yet clearly apparent to you. There is in the Army a great gulf, introduced into it from the English service, favored by the laws, and religiously preserved by custom. The difference in rank, pay, and, above all, social status, between the highest non-commissioned officer and the lowest commissioned one is vast, and cannot be appreciated by the average civilian. It may not be advisable to discuss the reasons for its existence,

or the methods of its correction, but the fact is there, and it is the cause in great part of the difficulty of promoting from the ranks.

In no institution, corporation, or firm in the land does there exist such an anomaly. In no railroad system of officers and employees can you point to a line up to which the mass of employees may hope to reach, and beyond which outsiders may be called upon for suitable persons to fill the higher duties. In the complex and omnipresent Western Union Telegraph Company promotion may easily take place from one grade to another, and the managers are *promoted*, not *selected* from the country at large. In fact, no one can fail to see how foreign to the spirit of our institutions, how hurtful to the general service, how unaccountable (except by referring to the English service) is this same unnecessary and important gulf between the "rank" and the "file."

When intelligent legislators will admit that the Army and its concerns are not necessarily an occult science, I doubt not some way may be found by which it will be made desirable for men of the middle class to enter the Army as well as the militia; possible for each one so entering to look forward to advancement; desirable for the commissioned officers to watch over and further such promotion to the really worthy; necessary for the highest military authorities to look to the character of the "file" as well as the "rank"; and a matter of general pride and satisfaction to the country to have a body of men which, from top to bottom, is zealous, capable, and progressive. But so long as the Army is essentially divided into officers and men, the one superior and the other without hope, there will always arise such difficulties as you now perceive exist.

Yours truly,

R.

[“R.” overlooks the fact that our Army and the English are the only ones in which the ranks are filled exclusively by volunteers, and therefore by men who as a class may be said to have failed, or to have despaired of success, in civil life. This fact renders discipline more difficult in these armies than in any other, and necessitates a sharper line of division between commissioned officers and privates, and from the privates the non-commissioned officers come. No change in the regulations will send into the Army as privates the kind of recruits from which civil “institutions, corporations, and firms” draw their servants for the lowest grades. It may be asserted as a general rule that young men who in this country choose soldiering as a calling are restless and adventurous spirits who could not get employment from the telegraph or any other company, or, if they could get it, would not possess the qualities which bring promotion to responsible positions. We do not mean to insinuate by this that the quality of the rank and file cannot be improved, but in discussing the ways and means of doing so no good can come from deluding ourselves into the belief that the Army can go now, or will ever be able to go, into the labor markets on equal terms with commercial corporations.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

THE private library of the late Caleb Cushing is to be sold in Boston, at the auction-rooms of Sullivan Bros. & Libbie, on Oct. 22, 23. The collection is in many ways remarkable, but its peculiarity consists in the large number of works in Spanish and pertaining to China, apropos of the owner's two missions and his part in the Mexican war, and on international law. It is the library of a statesman and not of a littérateur or general student. We notice that the author of a squib in which “Cushing” was made to rhyme with “pushing,” Miss Hannah Gould, has her three volumes of poetry “uncut.”—Another opportunity for book purchasers is held out by the “Catalogue of a Collection of Eight Thousand Volumes of Books in all Departments of Literature,” for sale by the Mercantile Library Co., of Philadelphia. Duplicate works of fiction naturally abound in this collection, but the majority of the numbers represent a wide range of subjects and authors, and some are scarce or rare.—The salient features of the early history of Fairfield, Conn., will be found spread on fair paper in open type in the report of the centennial commemoration of the burning of that town by the British, July 8, 1779 (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.)—A Connecticut man's career is instructively told by Judge Cowley in his ‘Reminiscences of James C. Ayer and the Town of Ayer’ (Lowell: Penhallow Printing Co.) The moral is not always that pointed by the author, but it is generally unmistakable.

Dr. Ayer's achievements as a mechanical inventor will be new to many readers, and his exposure of the weakness and abuses of joint-stock corporations and efforts to reform them, should not be overlooked in passing judgment on his character.—The Fine Arts Publishing Co., of this city, announce for speedy publication the ‘Doré Bible Gallery,’ containing in a quarto volume one hundred of that artist's best illustrations of the Scriptures (reproduced, we suppose, by “process”), with explanatory letter-press and a portrait.—On the first of this month appeared in Paris the *Nouvelle Revue*, a rival of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, with E. About and other disaffected writers—John Lemoine, F. Sarcey, G. Flaubert, etc.—among its contributors.—Henry Holt & Co. have in preparation a new revised and enlarged edition of the poems of Arthur Hugh Clough, with a memoir by Prof. Norton, of Cambridge.

—The eleventh edition (in as many years) of Francis Parkman's ‘Discovery of the Great West’ now appears, bearing for its principal title ‘La Salle’ (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) This is a proper indication of the essential unity of one of the most dramatic and enchaining historical narratives in the language, and gives a just prominence to the intrepid character who first traced for Europeans the water way from the Great Lakes to the Gulf. The work has been thoroughly revised—with the conscientiousness of a stylist as well as of an historian. After a careful comparison of this last with the original edition, there are barely four chapters out of twenty-nine which are seemingly untouched; and even in these might be discovered some verbal alterations, were they merely rhetorical, such as abound among the weightier corrections, additions, and retrenchments elsewhere. Chapter vi. absorbs the old vi. and vii.; chapter xxii. is interpolated. The chief cause of the changes is the new information about La Salle furnished by M. Margry's recently printed collection of original documents called ‘Découvertes et Établissements des Français dans le Sud de l'Amérique Septentrionale.’ Not only has it supplied a number of important details about La Salle's movements, but it has shed so much light on his temperament as to affect considerably the final summary of his character, and to mitigate some judgments pronounced upon those who fell out with him. Thus, much more is known and can be told of his difficulties with Beaujeu, greatly to the bluff old sailor's advantage, and with a distinct gain in interest to the tragedy in which Beaujeu's rôle is so much exalted. More graphic than before and more minute is the account of La Salle's failure to make the mouth of the Mississippi, and of the first adventures after the landing in Texas; Joutel's memoir is quoted more freely verbatim, where abstracts were previously given, and this is true generally also of La Salle's own reports already made use of in the first edition. But a word or two appears to have been altered in the faultless humorous episode of Father Hennepin: but Margry supplies on p. 262 a capital description of the boastful friar in La Salle's own words: “Il ne manquera pas d'exagérer toutes choses, c'est son caractère . . . il parle plus conformément à ce qu'il veut qu'à ce qu'il sait.” Of Tonty, too, we learn nothing new. La Salle's confession of a natural timidity and solitary disposition which made life in the wilderness more congenial to him than any European employment, and a glimpse of a love affair in one of his letters, are perhaps the greatest novelties in the freshly-acquired data concerning him. So far as regards its hero, this admirable work of Mr. Parkman's seems likely to be undisturbed by future revelations.

—The result of the recent examinations for private collegiate instruction to women at Cambridge is that twenty-eight ladies have begun to study under the professors of Harvard College, four having passed the examinations requisite for entrance upon the full course of four years, and the others taking from one to four special courses each. The number entering for a four years' course would have been greater had there been time after the announcement of the plan for preparation. One of those who entered was from the Boston Girls' Latin School, where others are preparing for next year. Twenty-four courses have already begun, under eight professors, seven assistant professors, and eight tutors. The students are distributed among the different studies thus: Greek 6, Latin 8, Sanskrit 1, English 5, German 5, French 6, Philosophy 4, Political Economy 5, History 4, Music 2, Mathematics 7, Physics 3, Botany 5. Among the students are graduates of Smith and Vassar, students from some of the best public and private schools of New York and New England, and one lady from Missouri. One has passed the Harvard Examinations for Women, and others have been helped by the Society for the Encouragement of Studies at Home. The examinations were made as nearly as possible like those which the candidates for the college were undergoing at the same hours. The professors enter upon the work with evident interest, and the ladies are in earnest. None seem to have come

but with the most praiseworthy motives; none because it is "the thing" to go to Harvard.

The trustees of the Peabody Educational Fund held their thirteenth annual meeting in this city last week. Dr. Sears, the general agent, reported, among other details, the success of the recently-adopted policy of devoting the larger part of the income of the fund to the promotion of normal schools and the establishment of scholarships in connection with them; there is an evident interest taken in many of the Southern States in supplying the urgent need for trained teachers. Nevertheless, "to the poverty of the Southern people," he said, "must now be added the necessity generally felt of settling without further delay their State debts," which is a polite way certainly of stating a grave difficulty. The income of the Fund has depreciated from about \$120,000 to about \$83,000, owing to the reduction in the rate of interest on Government bonds, and "from the changes which have been enforced on our treasurer in many of our State securities." Mr. Winthrop, who presided at the meeting, intimated that Mr. Peabody's confident expectations in regard to the Mississippi bonds of the Fund had not been exactly fulfilled, which he regretted, as a little more money would be of the greatest advantage at this moment. One's inference from the entire report is that several at least of the Southern States by their course in regard to their securities are crippling the efforts of their benefactors to assist them, as well as "getting even" with the carpet-bag rings. Dr. Sears's recommendation, that the national Government should make an appropriation for the education of the blacks of the South, was approved and emphasized by Mr. Winthrop.

The vogue of the Positive Philosophy is nowhere now, perhaps, so great as it was some years ago. In England since the death of the late Miss Martineau it has been said that Comte had but three followers, Professor Beesley, Mr. Congreve, and Mr. Frederic Harrison; and though these have done yeoman service, it has seemed of late as if the shade of discouragement betrayed by them now and then were excusable. In his latest public utterance Mr. Harrison alluded with some bitterness, if we remember aright, to the idleness of talking about Comte to a British audience, and, considering the kicks and cuffs bestowed upon scientific religion on all hands, his feeling is easy to understand. When one has perceived the strength and weakness of both science and religion as hitherto practised, and suddenly discovers that a way to reconcile them and preserve the best of each of them has been invented, and thus a new religion elaborated with, as Mr. Harrison says, "precision and minuteness," it is surely disheartening not only to have Prof. Huxley call this "Roman Catholicism minus Christianity," but to have Roman Catholics themselves and most other people placidly agree with him. It is not surprising that Mr. Harrison should have turned to the Gentiles and determined to preach his gospel to Americans in an article on "Science and Humanity" in the current *North American Review*—a periodical whose recent numbers have been a series of successive detonations, startling us with the fruits of enterprise and vigilance in all fields of intellectual effort. We are not wholly unprepared for Mr. Harrison's paper. Any one who recalls the brilliant but brief career of that stately magazine, the *Modern Thinker*, will remember that we have ourselves accomplished something in Mr. Harrison's line. We are familiar with the "conception of humanity"; we know how it lights up "feeling, thought, and activity"; how it replaces the old anthropomorphic notions of God on the one hand and "the sand of elastic emotion" on the other. That theology is not what it used to be, and now can only "attenuate itself to a pious wish" and "has nothing whatever to say except 'Set not your thoughts and affections on this world'"; that "the heavens no longer declare the glory of God; they declare the glory of Kepler, Galileo, Newton"; that religion hitherto has failed "both to assimilate science and to moralize industry"; that to "ejaculate: 'Lay not up for yourselves treasures where moth and rust doth corrupt' . . . is to outrage the intellect of man," and to debase man to the position of "an idle, hysterical, ignorant mystic"; that what we ought to love and venerate is "the vast and overwhelming consensus of all human lives, the complex movement through the ages of human civilization and thought"—all these stern facts were not only stated long ago in the pages referred to, but set forth with all the beautiful persuasiveness of colored inks and paper. Mr. Harrison in this paper is merely going over what is even to us old ground; we deserve that he should have begun further on; further on he could not have avoided being instructive, since most people have long been fully convinced that, as he says, "the scheme of positivism would not be the solid thing it is if it could be understood without a mass of labor."

The Ferry laws have met with so much hostile criticism outside of France, and especially in the English press, that it is not surprising to find M. Edmond About writing in the September *Nineteenth Century*, and M. A. Talandier in the October *International Review*, in their behalf. M. About's paper is called "Clerical Education in France," and is formally a reply to a recent article by the Abbé Martin in the same magazine. M. About is experienced in discussions concerning the claims or pretensions, as one chooses, of the clerical party; he is indeed so much at home upon all details of "The Roman Question" that he can write of them quite without violence and ill-temper, and hence with the greater persuasiveness. He explains of the Ferry Bill that only one of its ten articles is strongly objected to, and that that is substantially identical with one voted unanimously in 1844 by Louis Philippe's House of Peers; that only the unauthorized congregations are prohibited from teaching, which is a very different thing from prohibiting religious instruction; that the authorized religious communities give instruction to 1,650,000 children, of whom 1,180,000 are girls; and that the Republic "not only allows bishops, priests, and religious orders to establish as many schools as they like, but it opens to them its own schools, without verifying their qualifications, without testing their competency." There are now in France 22,216 male members of recognized religious bodies, and 113,750 female members; there are, on the other hand, 13,730 monks and 5,899 nuns unrecognized. The 200 Jesuits in 1845 have become 1,509; they own seventy-four houses and various mansions and estates. They are in no sense French, says M. About, yet they have killed the Gallican Church, crushed the Liberal-Catholic movement, and overawe now the bishops and the whole of the lower clergy. They have 9,000 pupils, and these they imbue with "the purest monarchical spirit," and teach hatred of "our very manners, of our institutions, of our laws, of the Civil Code." In fine, as other unauthorized congregations have 7,000 pupils, it appears from M. About's article that the obnoxious Ferry Bill is designed to prevent 16,000 youth from being taught contempt of the Republic; and, he concludes, "It is in the name of liberty that people now seek to shield the implacable enemies of every French liberty from an application of the law." M. Talandier is considerably more radical, and regrets that M. Madier de Montjan's amendment, applying "Article 7" to the authorized bodies, was not adopted. His objections to the Jesuits are chiefly uttered in the interests of morality, and it is not to be denied that some of them are pointed. If the Ferry Bill should be defeated in the Senate, which he thinks not improbable, the very moment of its defeat will be the moment of real danger for the Jesuits, as the disclosures of the "profound immorality of their teaching" made in the debate cannot now be forgotten. From both articles foreign readers will get the notion that the proposed legislation, whether just or not, is by no means as revolutionary as it has been supposed to be.

The regular season of orchestral music opened on Tuesday night with a concert in Steinway Hall. The occasion was looked forward to with considerable interest, as Mr. Theodore Thomas, after a year's absence, was to make his reappearance before a New York audience. He was warmly received by his numerous friends and admirers, and the concert would have had the character of a quite festive occasion had the performance been one of artistic merit. This was, however, not the case. In the first place, the programme presented no feature of novel interest. Every number but one has been heard in our concert halls over and over again during the past few years, and only a performance of unusual excellence could make amends for the absence of compositions of more striking and novel character. Throughout the performance it was evident that Mr. Thomas had not yet regained the full control over his musicians which is necessary for that perfect smoothness and evenness of interpretation for which he has earned so well-merited a reputation of late years; it was equally clear that the gentlemen who compose his orchestra have not played together for some time, for the greater part of the performance was wanting in spirit, unison, and precision. The first number was Beethoven's Symphony in D No. 2, Op. 36. The rendering of the first two movements was weak and uninteresting. The last two parts, the scherzo and the bright and spirited finale, were given in better style. The air from Bach's suite in D, with which Mr. Wilhelmj made us so familiar during the last season, was played *unisono* by the first violins on the G string, having been transposed one note below the original key, which is D major. The only novelty of the evening was a Slavonic Dance (*tempo di menuetto*) by Anton Dvorak; but even that proved commonplace. It made no impression on a first hearing and deserves only a passing notice. The gem of the evening was Wagner's "Siegfried Idyl," written on the occasion of the birth of the composer's first

son. It is a charming, tender fantasy on quaint old German cradle-songs put to exquisite harmonies and with truly artistic instrumentation. Mr. Rummel was the pianist of the evening. He played Schumann's ever-welcome Concerto in A minor, Op. 54, and Liszt's romantic Fantasia on Hungarian airs. In both numbers Mr. Rummel has been heard before, and been heard to greater advantage. He was unfortunate in the support of an orchestra which was sadly at fault sometimes, particularly in the Hungarian Fantasia. To judge from Tuesday's programme and from that advertised for to-day we are led to believe that Mr. Thomas intends these concerts to be of what is called a popular character, and we take last Tuesday's performance by no means as a type of the more serious work which we anticipate from him as conductor of the Philharmonic Society.

—The Indian Summer this year promises to be of unusually long duration, for of its two boundaries, the September rains and the November Atmospheric Wave, the former has occurred uncommonly early. The prevailing uncertainty regarding the date of the Indian Summer results from the variability of its termini; since the rains which precede it, often called the Equinoctial Storm, or the fall rains, are sometimes concentrated within the last fortnight of September and sometimes scattered throughout that month and October, while the November Cold Wave, averaging the first week in November, is sometimes several weeks late and sometimes falls on the last week of October. Last year it reached New England on the first day of November.

—We doubt if the contrast between Old and New Japan could be more strikingly conveyed, in as many words, than by the title of a large pamphlet which lies before us : 'Memoirs of the Science Department, University of Tokio, Japan. Volume I. Part I. Shell Mounds of Omori.' But there is even a still greater significance in this publication, for the paper on which it is printed is of Japanese manufacture; the composition and press-work were done in a Japanese office, "the compositors not being able to speak a word of English"; and the plates were drawn by Japanese artists, unfamiliar with "the art of drawing in foreign style and the art of lithography." Finally, Japanese scholars, members of the Tokio native Archæological Society, and students of the University have liberally aided in furnishing the material which our countryman, Edward S. Morse, Professor of Zoölogy at Tokio, here discusses. As a native production, then, this *fascicule* is both curious and highly creditable. Professor Morse's part is as excellent as was to be expected from his gift of research and of description, joined to a wide experience in this special field in two hemispheres. The value of his account of the Omori shell mounds is greatly increased by his comparative treatment of their contents, which he places beside those of similar accumulations in New England, Florida, Denmark, and other portions of the globe. They lie at a distance of nearly half a mile from the shores of the Bay of Yedo, and of six miles from Tokio, being cut through by the railroad from the capital to Yokohama. They are remarkable for the vast quantities of pottery, of many shapes and "an almost infinite variety of ornamentation"—with evidences, nevertheless, of economical patching and mending; the paucity of stone implements and total lack of stone arrow-heads, spear-heads, etc.; the total lack also of flint implements—even so much as a flake or chip; and the presence of tablets of clay of extra fineness, comparable to the Cincinnati Tablet of 1841, but of unknown use—whether as quoits, insignia of rank, or amulets. Evidences of cannibalism, of which there is no tradition or record in Japan, exist, as they do in the mounds of New England, Florida, and elsewhere. The pottery never imitates any natural object, never has legs or knobs for support from below, bears the impress of cords and the human hand, and shows no trace of lathe-work. Only one piece—a clay bead—for personal ornament has been found, but this is gracefully decorated by incisions. Implements made of deer's antlers are common; "not a single worked shell, either as an implement, utensil, or ornament, has yet been found." Bones of man, the monkey, deer, wild boar, wolf, dog, and possibly a large ape, occur with the other remains. The lateral flattening of the human tibia exhibited elsewhere by pre-historic man is here the rule, and there are some marked instances of it—one having an index of 0.502 (Broca's Cro Magnon tibia being 0.60). As was to be anticipated, the ancient molluscan fauna differs widely in abundance and in the size and relative proportions of its shells from the same species still extant in the neighboring waters. Part II. of these Memoirs will present the pottery of the shell mounds of Yezo, Tokio, and Higo.

—The recent order of the French Minister that titles of nobility are not to be recognized in official documents unless supported by documentary

evidence of genuineness, is likely to cause a great deal of ferment in conservative circles, owing to the very large number of false barons and viscounts, and still larger number of "false nobles," or persons wearing the noble particle "de" on their names without having any legal or moral right to it. Prince Napoleon, in one of his conversations reported by Mr. Senior, asserted that very few of the titled Legitimists of the "noble faubourg" had any claim to the names they bore, which no doubt is strictly true, though of course this only makes them cling to them all the more tenaciously. All threats on the part of the Government to enquire into them or disallow them have hitherto been met by the fiercest resistance, on the plea that the owners could not prove them owing to the loss of their papers in the Revolution. Mr. Hamerton, in his charming picture of French life, 'Round My House,' gives an account of the way in which the false nobles get hold of the "de," which, although it has no political value whatever, has immense social value, particularly when a man is going to marry. The cannier bourgeois father is so tickled by it that he will often give his daughter to a man who has it and nothing else rather than to one with a plain name and a large fortune :

"The most convenient and simple way of assuming the 'particule' when it does not belong to you is this: You buy a little property somewhere in the country which has an old, romantic name—there are thousands of such properties in so old a country as France. Let us suppose, for example, that the name of the property is Roulongeau. Here I may mention a real instance as an example of how the thing may be done. A friend of mine, a notary, came into possession of a ruined castle, which we will call Roulongeau, which was handed over to him in payment of a bad debt. Here was a capital opportunity for self-promotion into the ranks of the nobility. The notary was too honest a man to avail himself of it, but what he might have done very easily is this: he might have begun in the usual way by signing himself by his old name with the territorial designation in brackets after it—thus, Machin [de Roulongeau], which has quite a modest appearance, because it only looks as if this Machin wished to distinguish himself from the other Machins, to avoid confusion. The reader sees how easy the upward progress becomes when once this first step has been taken. The brackets are dropped first; then Machin is abandoned as unnecessary, and so you have Monsieur de Roulongeau, which sounds all the more respectable because there really was such a family in the Middle Ages. After that a rich marriage is easily arranged, and why not revive the old barony? Three generations are enough to accomplish the whole evolution; but it needs some courage at first and a little persistence afterwards."

—Any one who looks at a list of French names belonging to the richer bourgeoisie, such as a division list in the Assembly, will be sure to see several in the first stages of the process, with the brackets. Paul de Cassagnac is often in trouble with his "esteemed contemporaries" on this score, as they sometimes refer to the fact that his father is Granier de Cassagnac, and insinuate that his grandfather was Granier (*de Cassagnac*), while Paul himself is De Cassagnac *tout honneur*. But we must not suppose that this manufacture of false nobles is of recent or post-revolutionary origin. It has been going on for centuries. It was in full blast in Montaigne's day—that is, the early part of the sixteenth century :

"It is a bad custom," he says, "and of very ill consequence, that we have in France of calling every one by the name of his manor or seigneur, and is the thing in the world that confounds pedigrees the most. A younger brother of good family, who has had a manor left him by the name of which he has been known and honored, cannot handsomely quit the name: ten years after his decease it goes to a stranger who does the same; only judge how we shall know these men. There is so great a liberty taken in these changes, that I have not in my time seen any one advanced by fortune to any extraordinary grandeur, who has not speedily had genealogical titles added to him, new and unknown to his father, and who has not been inoculated into some illustrious stem. By good luck the obscurest families are the most proper for changes."

—It is now some three years since Professor Mommsen loudly called attention to the prevalence in Germany of diplomas issued by unknown American faculties, and of degrees obtained in Germany, but which were to an equal extent a fraud upon the public, either because granted "in absentia" or because the theses written to secure them were not original with the candidate. Prof. Mommsen advocated the universal adoption of the rule obtaining in the Prussian universities forbidding the granting of degrees in absentia, and also measures to put a stop to the sale and use of theses. In accordance with these recommendations an example has just been made by the University of Leipzig. It seems that last June a student there handed in a thesis, accompanied by the usual declaration in writing that it had been written without assistance, which was found by the faculty to have been compiled from easily accessible authorities, and to be quite without original thought, on which account the professors charged with examining it refused to accept the work. But before the decision to this effect had been published the authorities of the University of Berlin received a communication from the Government attorney

for that city, containing proof that the thesis in question had not been written by the student who presented it, but by one Dr. R. in Berlin, in consideration of the sum of 450 marks, which, however, had not been paid. These circumstances were forthwith made known to the Leipzig faculty, and the student, being confronted with the evidence, at once confessed. Expulsion from the University followed, an act which entails exclusion from every official position within the Empire.

MORLEY'S BURKE.*

"I WAS not, like his Grace of Bedford, swaddled and rocked and dangled into a legislator : *Nitor in adversum* is the motto for a man like me. I possessed not one of the qualities nor cultivated one of the arts that recommend men to the favor and protection of the great. I was not made for a minion or a tool. As little did I follow the trade of winning the hearts, by imposing on the understandings, of the people. At every step of my progress in life (for in every step was I traversed and opposed), and at every turnpike I met, I was obliged to show my passport, and again and again to prove my sole title to the honor of being useful to my country, by a proof that I was not wholly unacquainted with its laws and the whole system of its interests both abroad and at home. Otherwise, no rank, no toleration even, for me."

These are the words in which Burke describes one aspect of his career, and no one who studies Mr. Morley's admirable biography, by far the best life of Burke which has yet appeared, can doubt that Burke uttered the plain and unexaggerated truth. Throughout his career he was dogged by suspicion and calumny. For one part of his life he was hated by Tories as an out-and-out Whig ; for the remainder he was detested by Whigs as a traitor, who, after he had ruined and deserted his party, procured a pension from the court which throughout the whole earlier part of his life he had assailed with unceasing invective. Moreover, no admiration for his genius can blind any one to the fact that the dislike to Burke entertained by many of his contemporaries had a peculiar character. It was not so much hatred as suspicion, nor can it be said that even his friends appear to have been free from a sentiment of distrust. Johnson, who, in favor of Burke, relaxed his prejudice against Whigs, believed him to be the author of Junius—that is, thought it possible that he might be a masked calumniator. The very men whose main title to fame lies in Burke's eulogies rewarded his indefatigable labors with niggardly recognition. The high places of the Government were for Rockingham, for Portman, for Cavendish, or for Fox, whilst the statesman of genius whose eulogies alone keep alive the memory of any one of the Whig magnates, except Fox, had to be content with inferior posts and pecuniary advantages. No doubt one of the grounds why the Whigs did not even think of Burke as a leader was the animosity which his name would have excited. But if this fact is palliation for the neglect shown by men of very moderate calibre towards a statesman of transcendent genius, the question still remains, What was it in Burke that aroused the sentiment that there was to be for him "no toleration" ?

The enquiry is worth some consideration, because the answer to it not only throws a curious light on Burke's history and on the sentiment of the time in which he lived, but also, if we are not mistaken, calls attention to a peculiarity in the character of his genius. The causes of the dislike to Burke which made him throughout his career the object of suspicions, calumnies, or slanders, the echo of which has even now hardly died away, are at first sight not very clear. He was obviously adored by his friends. The pathetic parting from Johnson, the unbounded admiration of Fox and Windham, the genial satire of Goldsmith, the warm friendship of Elliot, all testify to the fact that Burke was made to be loved and in many cases received the affection he deserved. His generosity to Barry, his zealous patronage of Crabbe, his fervent benevolence towards miserable outcasts, are all proofs of the warm-heartedness which is almost certain to be repaid by fervent attachment. Of his hatred of oppression, of the desperate struggles in which he engaged for the benefit of men and of nations which could never repay his services even by gratitude, it is needless to say anything, for they form the most salient features in his life. His genius was, moreover, of a kind which early obtained recognition. It was a light which could not be hid, and was discerned as clearly by foes as by friends. Yet admitted virtues and the acknowledged possession of transcendent talents seem in Burke's case rather to have provoked than to have disarmed enmity.

Burke, it may be said, was always a party man, and the hatred he incurred was the natural result of party spirit. But this explanation hardly hits the mark. The tone of the time was rather violent than bitter. In-

vective was admitted to be what Lord Beaconsfield has termed it, the ornament of debate, and men might speak of one another as scoundrels and even, if occasion called for it, give each other the satisfaction due to a gentleman, without any serious feeling of hatred. North shook his sides with laughter at the philippics of the Opposition, and the Opposition, who had for years spoken of North as a criminal who deserved impeachment, found no difficulty in sitting side by side with him in the same Cabinet. If there was any one whom Johnson might be supposed to abhor it was Wilkes ; but Johnson found it easy to bandy compliments and repartees with the great agitator over Mr. Cave's dinner-table. The generation who devoured the letters of Junius liked a good hater, and it may well be doubted whether mere partisanship was thought, even by Burke's detractors, to be any very grievous fault in the man they abused. A reader, in short, who ponders over Burke's virtues and talents is nearly driven to the conclusion that goodness and wisdom in Burke's case excited of themselves the enmity of a wicked and foolish generation, and that his career was marred by that hatred of bad to good which is at least as strong and as natural as the "strong antipathy of good to bad." Yet this is an explanation in which no thoughtful mind can ever permanently rest. No doubt Burke's virtues did excite hostility. Nabobs rich from the plunder of India were not likely to pardon the prosecutor of Hastings. Court minions who battened on pensions were certain to loathe the advocate of economical reform. But it is vain to suppose that virtue alone is the cause of calumny ; it is childish to believe that a whole generation is vicious rather than to admit that a hero is not faultless.

Reflection on Burke's life, as told by Mr. Morley, will convince any impartial judge that a good deal of the hostility which Burke aroused arose from a peculiarity in his position which it is a little difficult for modern readers fully to appreciate. Burke was an adventurer. By this we do not mean that he was a man of low principles, or a person who pursued low aims. It must take a very dull critic not to see that Burke's moral and political ideal was far higher than that entertained by the politicians of his age, or indeed by most men, politicians or not, in any age. It would further argue stupidity not to perceive that Burke made great sacrifices for the sake of his principles. Had he turned to the court at the earlier part of his career, place, pensions, and power would have been soon within his grasp. With a little of the suppleness of Bacon he might easily have gained the outward success which, if it added to the lustre of Bacon's life, has injured his permanent fame. But Burke deliberately attached himself to the body of statesmen whom he deemed, whether rightly or not, the most virtuous men of their age. Yet for all this he was an adventurer, though, strange as the combination of terms now sounds, an adventurer not only of genius but of principle. The circumstance which makes him an adventurer is that he took to politics as a profession, and indubitably also intended to make, and more or less succeeded in making, a fortune. Whoever will read Mr. Morley's second chapter will see all that can and all that need be said on this subject. Burke belonged to something like a clan of adventurers, some of whom, it may fairly be supposed, were not as high-principled as himself. "What cannot," writes Mr. Morley, "be denied is that an unpleasant taint of speculation and financial adventureship hung at one time about the whole connection, and that the adventures invariably came to an unlucky end." With this must be combined the fact that Burke was not only an adventurer—that is to say, a person who, embarking in politics as a profession, began life with nothing, and within a few years became the owner of an estate and had pecuniary means for the existence of which it was not easy to account—but was not unnaturally suspected to be a Roman Catholic adventurer. We agree with Mr. Morley that there is no real reason to think that Burke was a Papist, but we are inclined to hold that Mr. Morley passes over too lightly the element of truth which lay at the bottom of the charge of Catholicism. Burke, as has been well remarked by Mr. Froude, was, though not a Catholic, in no real sense a Protestant. He hated dissent, he had but little sympathy with the Reformation, he overrated the virtues and underestimated the vices of the French priesthood. As sometimes happens, a misconception represented what was substantially true. Burke's sympathy for Catholicism was a real and substantial objection to his leadership of an English party. No wise Frenchman would place an Ultramontane at the head of the Republic. Burke's religious sentiments made him a most dangerous guide in any policy which concerned either English Dissenters or French Revolutionists. In the later period of his life he clearly delighted in identifying the cause of Dissent with the cause of Jacobinism.

Burke's attitude towards Dissent is an example of the trait in his character which, after all, had a far closer connection with the malevolence

* 'English Men of Letters. Burke. by John Morley.' London : Macmillan & Co.; New York : Harper & Bros.

that he aroused than have the external circumstances of his career. The defects of the associates to be met with at his home, his rise from poverty to comparative wealth, the curious obscurity which shrouds the opening years of his career in England, the suspicion that he was a Papist and his brother a monk, might influence his contemporaries, but have long ago been forgotten by a generation who know Burke by his works only, and are entranced by utterances of supreme political wisdom clothed in the most perfect language. Yet candid admirers will confess that whenever they disagree with Burke's views there is something which excites irritation in the mode in which the views are put forward. One may, perhaps, go further and say that, except when dealing with American questions (as to which Burke has the calmness which arises from the sense of being absolutely in the right), he never entirely carries even his admirers with him. You feel that an unknown something spoils what would otherwise be perfect. This "something" is a want of justness of mind. Burke was an enthusiast for justice. He would have sacrificed everything on earth to put an end to any act of oppression, but he was not a just man. The calmness requisite to balance one side against another, the attempt to realize what were the strong points of an opponent's case, the faculty even of showing that kind of appreciation of an enemy's position which is requisite if one is fully to expose its weakness, was the one moral or intellectual gift which Burke did not possess. Hence the persons he assailed suffered from a sense of unfairness which was the greater because of the indubitable force of the assault. Not a single weak point in the position of the French Revolutionists escaped his glance. We doubt whether modern critics have discovered a single revolutionary error or fallacy which he overlooked, but to the good or the better side of the revolutionary movement he was as blind as the stupidest of Tory squires. Hence, though a generous man, he displayed in dealing with his opponents a curious lack of generosity. Of George III., during his first attack of madness, Burke used in private expressions which even now shock humanity. He reflected on Lafayette, a man as high-minded as himself, at a time when even a personal foe would have felt attack to be unseemly. His whole attitude towards the Dissenters showed how little he sometimes entered into the grievances of men with whose opinions he did not sympathize. His breach with the Whigs was inevitable; but what was not inevitable was his attempt to turn the whole force of popular feeling against men like Fox, whose virtues he had known, admired, and eulogized. A curious quotation from Miss Burney's writings which our readers ought to study, in Mr. Morley's book, throws more light on Burke's one great deficiency than a hundred criticisms. It tells how even the rhetorical effect of his splendid diatribe against Hastings was gradually injured by its obvious want of justice to the accused. The answer to the question, in short, why there was no toleration for one of the best of men, and, in many respects, the very wisest of English statesmen, is to be found in the two facts that his career was in some respects that of an adventurer, and that his astounding genius lacked the one great quality of justice.

RECOLLECTIONS OF ENGLAND AND ITALY.*

MME. CRAVEN is well known for her 'Récits d'une Sœur' and a number of later works, in all of which her main purpose is to set forth the beauties of the Roman Catholic faith. This she does with considerable literary skill, a culture that belongs especially to her own old Legitimist world, and with great zeal. She has apparently at last exhausted the saintly characters within reach of her home-circle, and now gives her own personal reminiscences, beginning with a pleasant account of two English homes and the families that occupy them. Broadlands was Lord Palmerston's place in the country, and Mme. Craven was a welcome visitor there in its palmy days, when Lord and Lady Palmerston entertained as became the Prime Minister and his wife. Mme. Craven has seen it, too, under its new owners, the Cowper-Temples, who have substituted prayers for politics, and religion for worldly amusements. Even more interesting is her description of Bridgewater House and the home-life of the Ellesmeres, the Leveson-Gowers of earlier days, where art and literature were the main delight of the family. Broadlands, as Mme. Craven describes it, was a comfortable house, spacious, cheerful, elegant, and attractive, with its two great drawing-rooms, large dining-room, and room between them filled with flowers, on one side the great hall, and on the other side a billiard-room and a library rich in books and pamphlets and newspapers. All the notable men of the day, English and foreign, were in rapid succession guests of Lord Palmerston, while Lady

Palmerston received the leaders of the fashionable world over which she had presided from her eighteenth year. The sister of Lord Melbourne, she shared with him an inheritance of tact and intelligence in great questions, which he freely discussed with her, and the charm that made her the recognized leader of fashion served to strengthen the political party that maintained such a long and absolute hold of power during the ministry of her brother and of her husband. Lady Granville and Lady Palmerston were the mistresses of the two great houses in which liberal opinions were at home, in London, but in which also representatives of all political parties, and men and women of genius of all nations, were heartily and gracefully welcomed. Lady Palmerston was blessed with two daughters (by her first marriage with Lord Cowper). Lady Shaftesbury and Lady Jocelyn, who shared their mother's kindly qualities and helped her in the never-ending task of entertainment. A Legitimist of the strictest sect, Mme. Craven found that the pleasant atmosphere of the Broadlands household made even Persigny, the typical imperialist, both agreeable and amusing; which was small wonder, since he told her, in his odd fashion of thinking aloud, that all the Empire needed to strengthen it was the support of the Legitimists, and that he had often urged the Emperor to secure in them the most honest people in France. Mme. Craven was too good a Catholic to find pleasure in visiting the great English cathedrals, which, consecrated in earlier days to her own faith, were, in her opinion, desecrated by the Protestant worship within their walls. She was too much of a religious controversialist to enjoy the absolute silence on all religious topics that reigned at Broadlands, and she refers to the energetic Churchmanship of Mr. Gladstone and the excitement of the Tractarian movement on the one hand, while on the other the only sign of interest Lord Palmerston gave was by his successful efforts in behalf of Catholic emancipation. Mme. Craven tells a curious story of Charles Greville, the author of the 'Memoirs' that have had, it may be said, such a *succès de scandale*. In a moment, as she thinks, of religious doubt, he begged her to help him to believe, and urged her to have pity on his want of faith; but she was shrewd enough to refuse to listen to him, or she might have figured in the long roll of the dupes of his simulated pledges in politics and in the other less noble pursuits of his long life.

The Broadlands of to-day Mme. Craven saw lately under the control of its present owners, the Cowper-Temples, when they assembled, as in a sort of religious retreat, two hundred persons of both sexes and all ranks, for prayer and exhortation, led by Mr. and Mrs. Robert Pearsall Smith, of Philadelphia, who alternated in preaching their peculiar doctrine of personal religion, and were followed by a variety of speakers, lay and clerical. Mme. Craven naturally draws a strong picture of the contrast between her two visits at Broadlands, and of course takes advantage of it to commend to her readers the one true Church. Her sketch of Bridgewater House is full of interest, and she traces the lives of its owners from 1836, when her first visit was made, down to the present day. Then she was introduced by her husband to his countrymen, and especially to the Ellesmeres, whose chief she had already known at St. Petersburg, where her father was ambassador when Lord Francis Leveson-Gower came in the suite of the Duke of Wellington to congratulate the Emperor Nicholas on his accession. She tells a romantic story of an unknown young friend who fell mortally ill at the sight of the handsome Englishman, from his likeness to a lover who had jilted her—an illness from which death only relieved her. Mme. Craven sketches the curious position held by Henry Greville, the brother of Charles, and she borrows several of the capital descriptions given by Mrs. Kemble in her 'Old Woman's Gossip.' These were brothers of the future Lady Ellesmere, from whom they differed in many ways. She had profound religious convictions, was unceasing in her charities, and loved a simple country life, in which she found relief from the cares of a London season. At Bridgewater House, with its famous picture-gallery, and at Worsley, their great Lancashire house, both husband and wife recognized perfectly the duties imposed on them by their wealth and their rank, and that true enjoyment was to be had only in their rural retreat near London, to which they could retire in the midst of a session of Parliament or from the fatigues of Court. Their life was spent in giving pleasure and help to others, and Lord Ellesmere's love of art and of literary pursuits was never allowed to interfere with his public duties. Even in building he chose a site that best enabled him to benefit the tenants of his great estates, and to expend part of the income from his coal and iron mines on the men who worked them to his advantage. Thirty years of happy married life were followed by ten years of a widowhood dignified by gracious kindness and cheerful activity.

The other sketches of this volume are more in the strain of Mme.

* 'Réminiscences, Souvenirs d'Angleterre et d'Italie. Par Mme. Auguste Craven.' 8vo, pp. 419. Paris: Didier; New York: F. W. Chistern. 1879.

Craven's earlier books, characterized by an ultra-Romanism and a desire to bring her readers within the pale of the Church. "Holy Week in Rome," "A Year After," "Livia," "Charity at Naples," and "La Cava" are all full of the propagandist purpose that lies so near the author's heart. The occasional autobiographical memoranda scattered through the book are likely to interest the large circle of her readers, and her clear and simple style lends a charm to incidents of ordinary life and every-day experience. As far back as 1840, Mme. Craven and her sister-in-law became sisters of the order of Pilgrims of the Trinity, and of course she shared in the exaltation incident to the part they took in the great church ceremonies. She inherited from her father, M. de la Ferronays, long in the French diplomatic service, a love of such religious services, and at St. Petersburg and at Rome she saw them in all their splendor. For her the benediction of Pius IX., and the spectacle of St. Peter's under his guardianship, were naturally of unusual solemnity. In 1830 she had seen Pius VIII.; in 1840 she knelt at the feet of Gregory XVI., and in 1850 she first received the benediction of Pius IX., whose personal acquaintance she had during his long pontificate.

Mme. Craven closes her book with extracts from her letters written during a sojourn in the neighborhood of Naples, at La Cava, between the Gulf of Naples and that of Salerno, and she shows great literary skill in reproducing the leading features of the curious life led in the mountains, still unchanged by the modern innovations that have made their way into almost every other quarter of Italy. Her pious faith is rewarded by finding new miracles and fresh legends told of various local saints and their altars. Her own industry in authorship, it seems, dates only from 1865, although she had written a few pages in 1830, and from that period her first work and her last draw their material.

The Philosophy of Music. Being the Substance of a Course of Lectures delivered at the Royal Institution of Great Britain, in February and March, 1877. By William Pole, F.R.S., F.R.S.E., Mus. Doc. Oxon., one of the Examiners in Music to the University of London. (Boston : Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1879. 8vo, pp. xx. 316.)—The appearance of the work of Prof. Helmholtz, 'Die Lehre von den Tonempfindungen' (The Theory of the Sensations of Tone), may almost be said to have made an epoch in the history of both science and art. All the resources of modern science and all the learning of past ages, under the most favorable external circumstances, seemed to have been concentrated in a single individual and brought to bear upon the solution of problems which had long baffled investigation. Musicians and men of science were astonished and, perhaps, a little dazed by the spectacle of a man who seemed equally at home in construing a crabbed sentence in a Greek writer on music, in treating a problem in acoustics with all the apparatus of the differential calculus, in discussing minute points in the anatomy of the human ear, or in criticising a chorus of Handel, a symphony of Beethoven, or a delicate turn in an air of Mozart. The gravest men of science became enthusiastic in their commendations of his patience, his care, his fertility of resource, his marvellous ingenuity, and his many brilliant discoveries. The natural result was that a great number of persons of all degrees of ability and scientific preparation began immediately to repeat his experiments and expound his theories. This was the case especially in England, and among the books the publication of which was due in a greater or less degree to the work of Helmholtz may be mentioned the treatises on sound by Lord Rayleigh, Sedley Taylor, and Prof. Tyndall. The work before us is due to the same cause. Mr. Pole tells us that his principal object has been to render more accessible to the musical world a portion of the work of Helmholtz, which is somewhat difficult to understand, and which, though really the most important, has received less attention than it deserves. The physical and scientific parts of Helmholtz's work have, he thinks, been abundantly illustrated, to the neglect of the æsthetical portion. Further, as the word "theory" is very vague, and as the subjects he intends to treat are essentially philosophical in their nature, he has adopted the title "The Philosophy of Music." He says (p. 15) :

"The popular impression probably is that music is altogether an artificial and fanciful thing, having no more fixed principles than the fashion of a lady's bonnet or the pattern of a wall-paper. On the other hand, the notion most generally prevalent among musicians is, that the rules of their art are founded in imperative natural laws which will not admit of violation and scarcely of alteration. Musicians are aware that great changes take place from time to time as the art advances, but they account for this by the assumption of a gradual progress in science, every change involving, as they think, either the discovery of some new natural law or the extension of some old one."

"Philosophical investigation will show that the truth lies between

these two extremes. It is possible to trace the simpler elements of music back to certain physical and physiological principles ; but this connection does not go very far, for when the enquiry reaches the more complicated and elaborate features of musical structure, the physical explanations will be found to fail, and recourse must be had to the influence of æsthetic considerations."

After a careful perusal of the book we are compelled to say that any clear enunciation and exposition of these "æsthetic considerations" is nowhere to be found. Its whole tendency is negative. It asks many questions which the reader would like to see answered, and dismisses them with the declaration, not only that no answer can be given, but with an intimation that the questions are impertinent and no answer is required. As may be inferred from the extract we have given, Mr. Pole seems still to be in the thrall of a habit of which we had supposed that scientific men of the present day were pretty well cured. When the evidence is too overwhelming to be disputed, he admits that phenomena in art and science are regulated by certain fixed and definite laws. When they become a little too complicated for our present knowledge and means of investigation to unravel, he denies that any law exists. The old philosophical mandate, "Continue to seek," finds little favor in his eyes. In all difficult cases he seems decidedly inclined to take the side of the "lady's bonnet and the wall-paper." That there have been great changes in musical taste, that there have been and still are great differences in the music of different nations, that many things which called forth the enthusiastic admiration of musicians a century or two ago are now obsolete, no one acquainted with history will deny. But where, according to Mr. Pole's statement, most musicians see only progress and development, the supplanting of what was good by what is better, Mr. Pole sees only a capricious change of taste. Most of the rules of musical composition, as laid down in the treatises on that subject, Mr. Pole regards as arbitrary. Perhaps next year the rule will be reversed. In support of his views he relates (p. 299) an anecdote, as he says, of Beethoven :

"Some critic remarked that a passage in one of his later works was 'not allowed.' 'Then,' replied the composer, 'I allow it ; let that be its justification.'"

Mr. Wade, in his hand-book for the piano, tells essentially the same story of Mozart. The story will also be found in Holmes's life of Mozart with the passage which gave rise to it. We have not the book at hand, but, if we recollect aright, the passage referred to is from one of Mozart's concertos. However, be its origin what it may, all the story proves is that the composer thought proper in certain circumstances to violate a rule which in most cases he himself followed. Most reasonable persons will readily assent to the assertion of Helmholtz, that nothing is absolutely forbidden in music. But that does not prove that all rules are merely arbitrary.

In its treatment of many points in the history of music, and in the department of acoustics, this is an excellent book. Its chief divisions are : the "Material of Music," that is, musical tones ; the "Elementary Arrangements," or musical scales ; and the "Structure of Music," as made up of harmony and melody. Although in most respects Mr. Pole closely follows Helmholtz, yet it is with the freedom of a man who thoroughly understands his subject. From the stores of his own knowledge he has contributed much that will not be found in the work of the German philosopher, or at least not in so condensed and convenient a form. No work with which we are acquainted presents in so clear and practical a form the elementary mathematical facts which lie at the basis of the science of acoustics, requiring nothing more than a knowledge of common arithmetic for their complete comprehension. The author's account of the nature of Greek music is a model of simplicity and clearness. Equally good is his sketch of the history of early church music, and his account of the "plagal and authentic modes." The development of the modern system of harmony out of these ancient forms is traced in a manner always interesting and often ingenious, though Mr. Pole's philosophy unfortunately too often leads him to regard it as merely a chapter of happy accidents.

The Life of Charles James Mathews, chiefly autobiographical, with selections from his correspondence and speeches. Edited by Charles Dickens. (London : Macmillan & Co., 2 vols.; New York : Harper & Bros., Franklin Square Library No. 71).—Mr. Dickens's portion of this work—between a third and a half of it—has been written with the aid of abundant letters to and from its subject. Mathews's mother, the second wife of the first Charles Mathews (whose biography she had written in four volumes), died at the age of eighty-seven, in October, 1869. She had carefully preserved every scrap of writing from her son, or to him, or about him ; and to this store Mathews himself had added, so that

October 9, 1879]

there was no lack of material ready to the editor's hand. This very plethora of matter, however, has proved unfortunate for Mr. Dickens. The mother's papers, as might have been expected, are ample in detail about Mathews's earlier years; and Mathews himself, in an unfinished autobiography, seems to have supposed the public likely to be most interested in learning about his youth, when he was an architect, a pupil of Pugin's, and about his journeys with the Blessingtons, when he almost had his duel with Count d'Orsay. Mr. Dickens has fallen in with this manifestly erroneous idea, and recounts the early life of his subject at length, but treats the later and far more important part of his career—after he went upon the stage—with a strange want of proportion. It would take more than twice the barely twenty-five pages (of the American edition), which Mr. Dickens devotes to his dramatic doings, to do justice to Mathews's career on the stage; to his influence as an actor, both in England and America; to his several unfortunate attempts at management, and to his productions as a playwright. As a dramatist Mr. Dickens's notice of him is extremely inadequate; no list is given of his dramatic works, with the times and places of first performance, and no estimate is made of their merit. As a manager and as an actor Mathews is better treated, for we find in the appendix lists of the pieces brought out under his management of Covent Garden and the Lyceum, and a list of the plays in which he had acted—though this last, even, is incomplete and unsatisfactory; it does not give the part he played in each piece, nor the date when he first played it.

Still, in spite of shortcomings like these, the book is to be cordially welcomed. It is full of anecdotes, nearly all of them fresh and well told. Mathews's frequent letters are as light and sprightly as possible, which, by the way, causes one to regret the omission of the familiar epistle to Mr. Charles Reade. His correspondence gives us his views on his trips to this country in 1838 and 1857. Mathews ought to have had the best feeling toward this country, because he owed both of his wives to his visits to us. The second he married here in 1858, and the first he married in 1838 because he was coming here. It is to be remarked that he did not seem to understand the objection shown to Mme. Vestris when she came here with him forty years ago. It was merely to do obeisance to our alleged prudery that they had gone through the form of marriage before they left England; and yet Mathews failed to see that the opposition to Mrs. Mathews came from those who objected to the character of Mme. Vestris. Mathews made two appearances in Paris; it may be remembered that Talma was always anxious to go over to London to play *Hamlet* in English, and that the late J. B. Booth, on one occasion at least, acted *Oreste* in French with a French company in New Orleans; so Mathews went over to Paris in 1863 and acted at the Variétés in "L'Anglais Timide," a French play adapted by himself from the English "Cool as a Cucumber." His success was so great that he returned two years later to play in "L'Homme Blasé," the piece from which the English "Used Up" had been taken by Boucicault and himself, and in which Mathews had made a great hit as *Sir Charles Coldstream* (judiciously misprinted *Coldream* on page 63 of the Franklin-Square edition). Mr. Dickens translates M. Sarcey's criticism on the performance. It is highly eulogistic and well worth studying, as it sheds incidentally some light on the reasons why a performance in Paris is generally better than a performance in London or New York. The French act at rehearsal. Mathews did not attempt it, but seemed to be fumbling for the words, to the intense disgust of the author, Duvert (called Duval, p. 64), who was hoping great things from the English actor, as Arnal, the French original of the part, had very highly praised Mathews's performance—praise which the latter justified when he really did act. M. Sarcey preferred the Englishman in the first act and the Frenchman in the second, and all readers of M. Sarcey's criticisms know the very high opinion he always expresses of Arnal. One of the anecdotes told in the earlier part of the book suggests that possibly Mathews may have taken a few hints for his *Sir Charles Coldstream* from Lord Blessington. It may be noted that M. Got, of the Comédie-Française, in his recent letter on the English stage, referred to the acting of Charles Mathews in "The Game of Speculation," Mr. Lewes's adaptation of Balzac's "Mercadet, le Faiseur," as a performance from which he himself had been able to get more than one hint—evidence in Mathews's favor which would have delighted him immensely could he have lived eighteen months longer to hear it, as he had more than once seen his *Affable Hawk* contrasted with M. Got's *Mercadet* greatly to the French actor's advantage.

A Manual of International Law. By Edward M. Gallaudet, Ph.D., LL.D., President and Professor of Moral and Political Science in the Col-

lege for Deaf Mutes, Washington, D.C. (New York : A. S. Barnes & Co. 1879.)—It appears from Mr. Gallaudet's preface that M. Calvo's well-known treatise on international law has been taken as the basis of his manual; but as the author does not call it an abridgment it is proper to consider it upon its own merits. A very large portion of the volume is taken up with historical accounts of the leading events which have marked great epochs in the development of international law, and with this portion we have no fault to find. This, however, is not the most important part of such a work. The really essential requisite in a treatise on law of any kind, and particularly international law, is a correct statement of the principles which are recognized as governing its development. We do not mean that these are fixed and unchangeable—they have changed enormously within the last three centuries; but without clear views as to the principles, the changes themselves cannot be properly explained. Mr. Gallaudet is a professor of ethics and politics rather than a lawyer, and it is his indifference to legal distinctions which is the cause of the chief faults of his book. To give one or two instances of what we mean—in the introduction occurs a reference to the *jus gentium* of the Romans, and a comparison of what Mr. Gallaudet says on the subject with what Calvo says shows at once that the former does not clearly understand what Calvo says about it. "From all the definitions given of the term *jus gentium* by Roman jurists, it appears clearly that these words do not signify a rule of conduct applicable to international relations, but only the general principle of right grounded in human nature, influential only so far as civilization had at that time permitted it to be established and comprehended." This is Gallaudet's translation of a single sentence from Calvo (vol. i. p. 4). It is, in the first place, incorrectly translated, for Calvo's "principe général de droit" means really a general principle of *law*, not *right*; and, in the second place, it is entirely inadequate, for it leaves out what is a most important part of the history of the term—the fact that it originally meant a particular kind of positive law administered by regular tribunals. A comparison of what Calvo and Savigny have to say on the subject, with the remarks of Austin, would have saved Mr. Gallaudet the error of giving an account of a very intricate and difficult subject in a single misapplied sentence.

Turning to page 50, we find that Mr. Gallaudet defines international law as "the entirety of the mutual obligations of states," or "the duties to each other they are bound to fulfil, and the rights which, one of another, they may properly demand." This definition is imperfect because it contains no adequate explanation of the fundamental difference between the sanction which enforces these rights and duties and that which enforces municipal law. To put the matter to a direct test, Mr. Gallaudet's definition covers the case of treaties between two or more states, which may be quite outside of and even hostile to the general principles of international law. Besides this, international law does not deal with the mutual obligations of states alone. Piracy is an offence against the law of nations—so much so that a pirate is regarded as an enemy of all mankind; but there is not necessarily any state responsibility in the matter. The pirate is dealt with directly, if caught, as a pirate, and no question between states can arise out of his capture or execution—unless, indeed, some state has supported him in his depredations. But Mr. Gallaudet does not seem to think that definitions are of much importance, inasmuch as he alludes (p. 56) to the fact that we speak of "moral laws, physical laws, laws of quantity, etc., " as an argument to show that "international law" is a perfectly proper term for the collection of principles which generally go by this name. It is only fair to say, however, that in this respect Mr. Gallaudet's book does not differ materially from many other works on the law of nations of recognized authority. Accuracy of legal definition is rarely to be met with; and most legal writers are content to take definitions handed down by their predecessors unquestioned. It is high time, however, if international law is to make any progress in the future, that writers who undertake to explain what it is should make accuracy their principal aim.

Illustrated Biographies of the Great Artists: Titian, by Richard Ford Heath, B.A., Hertford College, Oxford; Rembrandt, by John W. Mollett, B.A., Officier de l'Instruction Publique; Raphael, by N. D'Anvers, author of 'The Elementary History of Art'; Tintoretto, by W. R. Osler, of University College School, London; Hans Holbein, from Dr. Wolmann's book, by Joseph Cundall, author of 'The Life and Genius of Rembrandt'; Van Dyck and Franz Hals, by Percy Rendell Head, of Lincoln College, Oxford; Turner, by W. Cosmo Monkhouse, author of 'Studies of Sir E. Landseer.' (New York : Scribner & Welford.)—These

are pleasant books to handle and to hold, medium octavos, rather thin in proportion to their size, having from 100 to 120 pages each except the Turner, which is one-fourth thicker, in flexible blue cloth covers, with a design in black taken from the title-page of a Terence of 1499. The idea of the series is a good one, viz.: that of making up a brief biography of each famous artist, and an account of his important works, from the very latest authorities; and of publishing it in a pleasant and cheap form, for very general reading. At the retail price of \$1.25 no one can call these books dear. Few persons have observed how rapidly new books on fine-art subjects succeed one another nowadays, and how commonly they are the result of new investigation and discovery, and therefore real additions to our common stock of knowledge. The press of London, of Paris, and of the important German centres of knowledge is continually at work with these new contributions to a branch of knowledge which had no existence fifty years ago. The circular signed by the London publishers, and bound in with the earlier volumes of those before us, speaks very properly of this matter, and calls attention to the very recent treatises on the times, lives, and labors of Michael Angelo, Raphael, and Correggio, the work of Messrs. Crowe and Cavalcaselle on Titian, and that of Mr. Gilbert on Titian's country, Cadore; of Dr. Thausing on Dürer and Herr Vosmaer on Rembrandt, and names the new edition of Dr. Wolmann's book on Holbein, having been printed too early in the year to allow of mention of the latest and apparently the best book on that artist and his work—the splendid folio of Paul Mantz. That this is so is proved by the Rembrandt biography before us; our readers are aware how great a part of Rembrandt's art-work is contained in his etchings, how unquestioned is his supremacy among artist-engravers, and how wide and general an interest his engraved work has excited. Mr. Haden, the English landscape designer and etcher, has published an admirable monograph upon the etched work of Rembrandt, but so brief, and so purely technical and practical, so confined to the evidence contained in the etchings themselves, and so recently and so privately issued, that it is rather surprising to find it quoted by Mr. Mollett. But this pamphlet, and Dr. Middleton's very lately printed catalogue, have both been freely and properly used.

The 'Rembrandt' is very nearly what it ought to be, simple and workmanlike in arrangement, and a model to be followed in the preparation of other books of the series. The 'Titian' is rather vague and wordy, and is too full of florid writing and exclamations to allow of a pleasant and orderly giving of information. The 'Raphael' is interesting and readable, and would be excellent but for the too monotonous pouring out of praise on all the master's works alike—the good and the not so good. The 'Tintoretto' is confessedly half made up of Mr. Ruskin's opinions and observations; so little has been written about the artist that Mr. Ruskin's constantly reiterated admiration could hardly be ignored, and the author, as it happens, is very ready to endorse it. Still more clearly stated is the derivation of the whole book on Holbein from Dr. Wolmann's 'Holbein und seine Zeit,' an excellent and complete monograph. The essays on Van Dyck and Hals, brief as they are, have more the air of independent biographies, meant for reading as well as reference. And finally, the Turner, the longest, seems to be also the most serious of all, having been composed with evident care, and a desire not to lose hold of reason and sense in homage to splendid genius.

It is matter of regret that the illustrations are very unsatisfactory. With the exception of a map of the Cadore country, in the 'Titian,' a map so badly reproduced that it is almost illegible, and of a copy of part of an ancient view of Leyden in the 'Rembrandt,' Ingres's sketch of Raphael's birthplace, and a few more, the pictures had better have been omitted. It would be worth the expense and trouble to some publisher to have memorandum-sketches made of world-renowned pictures similar to those which illustrate catalogues of many exhibitions nowadays. Such sketches, or the more elaborate engravings given by *Harper's* and *Scribner's Monthly*, when those magazines show us the best they can do, are what this series of biographies should have.

Famous French Authors. Biographical Portraits of Distinguished French Writers. By Théophile Gautier, Eugène de Mirecourt, etc., etc. Illustrated. (New York: R. Worthington. 1879.)—This is, as its title indicates, a collection of pen-portraits which nothing can prevent from being in a measure both entertaining and instructive literary reading. If it were not for this the way in which the book is got up would be fatal to both its value and its interest. There are "portraits" of Gautier, Sainte-Beuve, Madame Swetchine, Madame de Girardin, Arsène Houssaye, George Sand, De Musset, Hugo, Paul de Kock, Lamartine, Gavarni

Baudelaire, Balzac, Béranger, Monnier, Dumas, Maurice de Guérin, Diderot, and La Fontaine. They are of all degrees of merit; some of them are by distinguished pens, that of Gautier, for example, being taken from Sainte-Beuve's 'Nouveaux Lundis,' and so excellent; others are compilations by some literary journeyman who has felt it safe to refrain from all criticism, but otherwise has shown no judgment, such as the chapter on Sainte-Beuve himself. That on Madame Swetchine is by M. Pont-martin; that on Madame de Girardin, by Imbert Sainte-Amand; Mirecourt's 'Portraits et Silhouettes' is largely drawn upon—for a most unsympathetic sketch of George Sand among others. Many are printed anonymously, including several of the most important, such as that of Balzac. Even in these there is no sense of proportion or fitness shown; M. Paul de Kock gets more attention than La Fontaine or Béranger. Gautier's name appears on the title-page, but is signed to no chapter, and there is nothing to indicate that any portion of the book is translated from his writings. The translation is not particularly idiomatic, many locutions being literally rendered, and the proof-reading is none too careful. There is no scheme whatever about the book except that all the authors treated are French. There are appalling wood-cuts of Gautier, Lamartine, Béranger, Dumas, and others, but the reader unfamiliar with their features will perhaps fail to identify some of them. Altogether there is a frank air of brigandage and carelessness of concealment about the manner in which the work is constructed that is almost humorous. There could hardly be a more amusing instance of literary barefacedness, for example, than to find, as one does, pp. 272–306, Matthew Arnold's essay on Maurice de Guérin, word for word, in a collection of sketches of 'Famous French Authors,' with no sign whatever to indicate its origin.

Tanagra Figurines. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1879. 8vo, pp. 44; with four heliotype plates.)—In the *Nation* of Jan. 30, 1879, we gave an account of the collection of Tanagra statuettes then on sale by M. Feuardent in this city. This collection was shortly afterwards, as we stated at the time, purchased by Mr. T. G. Appleton, and presented by him to the Boston Museum of Fine Arts. The interest excited by these charming little productions of a branch of Greek sculpture unknown till within a few years has led to the publication of this quaint little volume, which professes to present to its readers what is known and what is conjectured concerning the character, intention, and history of the Tanagra figurini. It is obviously the work of a writer possessed of a strong interest in the subject, though somewhat unskilled in literary composition. The historical and archaeological learning of the book, however, needs serious revision. Both the historian and the philologist would be startled by many both of the author's statements and speculations. But there are touches of vivacity which make the pages entertaining, and we commend the little volume to those who have not access to the works of foreign scholars upon the subject.

Fern Etchings. By John Williamson, author of 'Ferns of Kentucky.' (Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co. 1879.)—The good reception of the smaller book referred to in the title, and the enjoyment which Mr. Williamson evidently has in his own handiwork, have led him to illustrate in similar way, but on a somewhat larger scale, all the Ferns of the Northern and Western Atlantic States. The new work is a quarto, made up of fifty-five etched plates and as many leaves of letter-press. The latter gives the botanical and the popular or anglicized name of the Fern, and the technical characters, generally taken from Gray's Manual. A few of the etchings are reproductions or reimpressions of the former plates; generally they are new and better; many are particularly good and characteristic, considering the very reduced size of the larger subjects and the absence of color. For our own part we do not miss the latter when we have good representations of outline and habit.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.		Publishers.—Prices.
Authors.—Titles.		
Bayne (P.), Lessons from My Masters.....	(Harper & Bros.)
Bigelow (J.), Life of Benjamin Franklin, written by himself, 3 vols., new ed.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) \$4.50
Coates (H. T.), Children's Book of Poetry.....	(Porter & Coates) 3.00
Dick's Irish Dialect Recitations.....	(Dick & Fitzgerald)
Dick's Ethiopian Scenes.....	"	"
Dick's Original Album Verses.....	(Edinburgh Wilson)
Gibbs (H. H.), Silver and Gold, swd.....	(Perthes)
Hillebrand (K.), Geschichte Frankreichs, Part II., swd.....	(James J. Chapman)
Howgate (Capt. H. W.), Poem of the Florence, swd.....	(Roberts Bros.)
Joyce (R.), Blandil: a Poem.....	(Wilhelm Friedrich)
Kloppe (W.), Lafontaine: seine Fabeln und ihre Gegner, swd.....	(Littell & Co.)
Littell's Living Age, July–Sept., 1879.....	(A. S. Barnes & Co.) 3.00
Mann (H. E.), Ancient and Medieval Republics.....	(A. C. Armstrong & Son) 5.00
May (Sir T. E.), Constitutional History of England, 2 vols.....	(Harper & Bros.) 1.25
Moncel (Count du), The Telephone, Microphone, and Phonograph.....	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Oncken (W.), Allgemeine Geschichte, Parts 7, Peter the Great, 8, Ancient Greece, swd.....	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)
Rydberg (V.), The Last Athenian: a Tale.....	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 1.50
Scudder (H. E.), The Bodleys Afoot.....	

